

Northumbria Research Link

Citation: Croney, Pamela (2016) Undergraduate student expectations of role requirements and pedagogic relationships in a business school: a psychological contract approach. Doctoral thesis, Northumbria University.

This version was downloaded from Northumbria Research Link:
<http://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/id/eprint/27929/>

Northumbria University has developed Northumbria Research Link (NRL) to enable users to access the University's research output. Copyright © and moral rights for items on NRL are retained by the individual author(s) and/or other copyright owners. Single copies of full items can be reproduced, displayed or performed, and given to third parties in any format or medium for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided the authors, title and full bibliographic details are given, as well as a hyperlink and/or URL to the original metadata page. The content must not be changed in any way. Full items must not be sold commercially in any format or medium without formal permission of the copyright holder. The full policy is available online: <http://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/policies.html>

**Undergraduate Student Expectations
of Role Requirements and Pedagogic
Relationships in a Business School:
A Psychological Contract Approach.**

Pamela Croney

**Professional Doctorate of Business
Administration**

April 2016

Undergraduate Student Expectations of Role Requirements and Pedagogic Relationships in a Business School: A Psychological Contract Approach.

Pamela Croney

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements of the
University of Northumbria at Newcastle
for the degree of
Professional Doctorate of Business
Administration

Research undertaken in
Newcastle Business School

April 2016

ABSTRACT

Ongoing research has identified a potential disconnect in academic and pedagogic expectation between academic staff and students. At the same time a context of higher tuition fees and changing student expectations renders this relationship even more important to the success of higher education institutions. This research investigated the sources of student expectations for the pedagogic relationship, the alignment between staff and student expectations and the potential impact of expectation fulfilment and frustration on the student experience. The study used the Psychological Contract as a theoretical framework, responding to recent calls for the further use of psychological contracts in education. The author has taught business in both secondary and university contexts for a number of years. This experience informed the phenomenological positioning of the thesis, its focus, its location in a large post-'92 business school, its mixed methods and an analytical method (template analysis) which has enabled both anticipated and emergent themes to be explored.

Data was collected from a sample of students at regular intervals throughout their first year of study and from staff. Both exploratory statistical analysis of survey data and template analysis of interviews suggested that staff and students' initial expectations broadly concur. However the practical implications of such notions as 'independent learning' develop significantly over the first year and it is contended that pre-entry expectations are significantly influenced by students' experience of the pedagogic relationship at tertiary education level. The initial pedagogic psychological contract changes significantly over the first year as post entry experiences (or the 'reality shock') reshapes and reconfigures their expectations.

The research developed a series of recommendations to both secondary schools and universities to improve the management of expectations.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	x
GLOSSARY	xi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	xii
DECLARATION	xiii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Motivations and the Role of the Researcher	1
1.3 Focus and Rationale of the Study	3
1.3.1 Focus on Expectations	3
1.3.2 Focus on Psychological Contracts	5
1.4 Research Question and Objectives	6
1.5 How this research differs from its predecessors	7
1.6 The importance of this research	7
1.7 Structure of the Thesis	8
1.8 Chapter Summary	9
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW – RELATIONSHIPS, ROLES AND EXPECTATIONS	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Relationships and Roles	11
2.2.1 Relationships within Education	11
2.2.2 Changing Perceptions of Student Role/Identity	14
2.2.3 Motivation to Study	20
2.2.4 Changing Perceptions of Academics’ Role/Identity	21
2.2.5 Institutional Habitus	23
2.3 Expectations	26
2.3.1 A Definition of Expectations	26
2.3.2 How Expectations are Formed	27
2.3.3 Research on Student Expectations	29
2.3.4 Research Regarding Academic Staff’ Expectations of Students	34
2.4 Chapter Summary	35

CHAPTER 3 LITERATURE REVIEW – PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT	37
3.1 Introduction	37
3.2 Psychological Contracts.....	38
3.2.1 History and Development.....	38
3.2.2 Contents of the Psychological Contract	40
3.2.3 Balance	42
3.2.4 Parties to the Contract	44
3.2.5 Breach and Violation.....	45
3.3 Psychological Contract within Education	50
3.4 The Creation and the Development of the Psychological Contract	54
3.5 Justification of Psychological Contract for this Study.....	60
3.6 Chapter Summary	61
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, DESIGNS AND METHODS	63
4.1. Introduction	63
4.2 The Knowledge Producer - The Role of the Researcher	64
4.3 The Production of Knowledge - Ontological and Epistemological Principles	68
4.4 Processes of Knowledge Production - Methodology Design Principles.....	70
4.4.1 Case Study Research Design.....	70
4.4.2 Mixed Method	73
4.5 Sampling and Selection.....	78
4.5.1 Criteria Used in Identifying Participants for Sample.	80
4.5.2 Sample Size	81
4.5.2.1 Survey Sample – Student	81
4.5.2.2 Survey Sample – Academic Staff.....	82
4.5.2.3 Interview Sample – Student	83
4.5.2.4 Interview Sample – Academic Staff.....	83
4.5.2.5 Non-Response Bias	84
4.6 Research Instruments	84
4.6.1 Questionnaire Design – Student Survey.....	84
4.6.2 Questionnaire Design – Staff Survey	89
4.6.3. Interviews.....	92
4.6.3.1 Interviews – Students	92
4.6.3.2 Interviews – Academic Staff	95
4.6.4 Researcher Personal Reflexivity within the Qualitative Interviews.....	96
4.7 Data Analysis	97
4.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis: Exploratory Statistical Analysis.....	97

4.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis: Thematic Analysis	98
4.7.2.1 Appropriateness of Template Analysis for this Study.....	99
4.7.3 Qualitative Data Analysis: The Procedure	100
4.8 Research Quality	110
4.9 Ethical Considerations.....	113
4.10 Research Limitations	116
4.11 Chapter Summary.....	117
CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS, ANALYSIS, SYNTHESIS	118
5.1 Introduction	118
5.2 Quantitative Data Analysis and Findings	120
5.2.1 Expectations of Academics and Importance of these Expectations	120
5.2.2 Expectations of Students and Importance of these Expectations	124
5.3 Qualitative Data Analysis and Findings.....	129
5.3.1 Findings, Analysis, Synthesis: Academic	129
5.3.1.1 What Does it Mean to be an Academic?	131
5.3.1.2 Sources Shaping Academic Expectations	133
5.3.1.2.1 Ideological Commitments	133
5.3.1.2.2 Diversity of Student Body.....	134
5.3.1.2.3 External Environment, Tuition Fees and the Good Old Days.....	135
5.3.1.2.4 Size	137
5.3.1.3 What does it mean to be a student? (According to Academics).....	138
5.3.1.4 The Experience.....	139
5.3.1.5 Summary of Academic Expectations Findings	142
5.3.2 Findings, Analysis, Synthesis: Student	144
5.3.2.1 What does it mean to be a student?	150
5.3.2.1.1 Diversity of the student body	153
5.3.2.1.2 Importance of ‘Studentness’ in first year	154
5.3.2.2 What does it mean to be an academic?.....	155
5.3.2.3 Newbie Expectations and Experiences.....	160
5.3.2.3.1 Pre-Entry Sources.....	160
5.3.2.3.2 Open Days.....	161
5.3.2.3.3 Tuition Fees.....	162
5.3.2.3.4 Pre-Entry Experiences.....	164
5.3.2.3.5 Experiences of Learning.....	165
5.3.2.4 Post-Entry Experiences	166
5.3.2.4.1 Not all Academics are the Same.....	167

5.3.2.4.2 Concerns for the Future.....	168
5.3.2.4.3 Assessment and Feedback Experiences	168
5.3.2.4.4 Transition	169
5.3.2.4.5 Not all Students are the Same.....	170
5.3.2.4.6 Size	171
5.3.2.4.7 Support	172
5.3.2.5 The Experience.....	173
5.3.2.5.1 Breach.....	174
5.3.2.5.2 Fulfilment.....	181
5.3.2.6 The Relationship	184
5.4 Chapter Summary.....	186
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	188
6.1 Introduction	188
6.2 Discussion.....	189
6.2.1 First Year Business Students' Expectations of their Academics within the pedagogic relationship. (R1).....	189
6.2.2 How have student expectations been formed? (RO2)	190
6.2.3 How student expectations of the pedagogic relationship change over the first year? (RO3)	191
6.2.4 Academics' expectations and their perceptions of students' expectations regarding the pedagogic relationship. (RO4)	192
6.2.5 The implications of differences between academics' and students' expectations.....	193
6.2.6 Psychological Contract and reciprocal obligations within the pedagogic relationship.	195
6.3 Contribution to Knowledge.....	195
6.3.1 Framework of the Transition Process	196
6.3.2 Psychological Contract Theory	200
6.3.3 Origins of Student Expectations.....	202
6.4 Recommendations for Practice	203
6.4.1 Implications for University	204
6.4.2 Implications for Faculty	205
6.4.3 Implications for School/College.....	207
6.4.4 Implications for Me as a Practitioner in Education	207
6.5 Recommendations for Future Research.....	208
6.6 Chapter Summary.....	210
REFERENCES	212
LIST OF APPENDICES	236
Appendix 1 Organisational Context.....	237

Appendix 2 Phenomenology – The philosophical stance behind the methodology	239
Appendix 3 Student Questionnaire.....	242
Appendix 4 Academic Staff Questionnaire.....	257
Appendix 5 Student Interview Schedules	267
Appendix 6 Academic Staff Interview Schedule	271
Appendix 7 Organisational Consent Form.....	273
Appendix 8 Informed Consent Form – Student Participant	278
Appendix 9 Informed Consent Form – Academic Staff Participant	282
Appendix 10 Scatter Diagrams – University Teacher Role	286
Appendix 11 Scatter Diagrams – Student Role.....	287

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 2

Figure 2.1 – Literature Review Structure	11
Figure 2.2 – Student Referred to As	16
Figure 2.3 – Services Education Triangle	19
Figure 2.4 – Specific Factors which may Influence the Expectations of Students of the Pedagogic Relationship	28

Chapter 3

Figure 3.1 - Pedagogic Exchange Relationship	43
Figure 3.2 – A Model of Contract Violation	47
Figure 3.3 – Responses to Violation	49
Figure 3.4 – Definitions of Student Psychological Contract	53
Figure 3.5 – A Framework of the First Year Undergraduate Pedagogic Psychological Contract Process	59

Chapter 4

Figure 4.1 – An Illustration of the Multi-layered Complexity of the Positionality of the Researcher Depending on the Role in which she is Perceived by the Research Participant	66
Figure 4.2 – Research Framework of Study	77
Figure 4.3 – Sequential – Nested Sampling Design	79
Figure 4.4 – Criterion Purposeful Sample	80
Figure 4.5 – Process and Sources for Compilation of Interview Questions for Phase 1 and Phase 2	94
Figure 4.6 – The Qualitative Research Analysis Process Used	101
Figure 4.7 – Research Inquiry Audit Trail	114

Chapter 5

Figure 5.1 – Record of Student Data Capture Dates and the Objective of Sessions	118
Figure 5.2 – Record of Academic Data Capture Dates and the Objective of Sessions	119
Figure 5.3 – Matrix of Expectations and their Importance for Academic Constructs	121
Figure 5.4 – Scatter Diagram of ‘Distance’ by Academic Expectation Construal between Students and Academics (Teachers)	123
Figure 5.5 – Matrix of Expectations and their Importance for Student Constructs	125

Figure 5.6 – Scatter Diagram of ‘Distance’ by Student Expectation Construal between Students and Academics (Teachers)	127
Figure 5.7 – Generalisation of Academic Experiences and Expectation of the Pedagogic Relationship	129
Figure 5.8 – Phase 1 – Generalisations	145
Figure 5.9 – Phase 2 – Generalisations	146
Figure 5.10 – Phase 3 – Generalisations	147
Figure 5.11 – Sources of Expectations Prior to Entry to University	161
Figure 5.12 – Student-Academic Triad Psychological Contracts	171

Chapter 6

Figure 6.1 – Summary of Contributions	196
Figure 6.2 – Framework of the Transition Process	198
Figure 6.3 – Recommendations for Practice: Stakeholder Implications.....	204

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 2

Table 2.1 - Empirical Studies on Impact of Student/Staff Expectations of University on Student Experience and Management of Expectations. (Inverse Chronological Order).....	30
--	----

Chapter 3

Table 3.1 - Summary of Previous research conducted on Student Psychological Contract within Higher Education (Inverse Chronological Order)	51
--	----

Chapter 4

Table 4.1 – Purpose of Surveys (Questionnaires) and Semi-Structured Interviews	74
Table 4.2 – Details of Timings of the Administration of the Questionnaire to Student Participants....	82
Table 4.3 – Details of Timings of the Administration of the Questionnaire to Academic Participants.	83
Table 4.4 – Student Questionnaire Data Rationale Guide	86
Table 4.5 – Academic Staff Questionnaire Data Rationale Guide	90
Table 4.6 – Details of Student Research Participants and Chronology of Interviews	93
Table 4.7 – Details of Academic Staff Research Participants and Chronology of Interviews	95
Table 4.8 – Original A Priori Themes	102
Table 4.9 – Initial Template for Student and Academic Qualitative Data Analysis	104
Table 4.10 – Final Template for Student and Academic Qualitative Data Analysis	107
Table 4.11 - Criteria Adopted to Ensure Quality of Research	112

Chapter 5

Table 5.1 - Expectation Constructs of Academics and their Importance Ranked by Distance between Academics and Students	122
Table 5.2 – Expectation Constructs of Student and their Importance Ranked by Distance between Academics and Students	126
Table 5.3 – Themes and Sub-themes: Academic	130
Table 5.4 – The Consequences of Breach: How an Academic Might Think, Feel and Behave Following a Breach of the Pedagogic Relationship	141
Table 5.5 – Themes and Sub-themes: Student	148
Table 5.6 – Antecedents and Outcomes of Breach / Unmet expectations from the Experiences of the Pedagogic Relationship	174
Table 5.7 - Antecedents and Outcomes of Fulfilment/Met (Exceeded) Expectations from the Experiences of the Pedagogic Relationship	181

GLOSSARY

DBA -	Doctor of Business Administration
FE -	Further Education
HE -	Higher Education
L2 -	Level 2 (GCSE Equivalent)
L3 -	Level 3 (A Level Equivalent)
L4 -	Level 4 (First Year Undergraduate)
L5 -	Level 5 (Second Year Undergraduate)
L6 -	Level 6 (Third Year Undergraduate)
RO -	Research Objective
PC -	Psychological Contract
PCB -	Psychological Contract Breach
TEF-	Teaching Excellence Framework
UG -	Undergraduate

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are a number of people who I would like to thank who have helped make this work possible.

I would first like to thank my Principal and Second supervisors, Professor Ron Beadle and Dr Julie Crumbley who have been extremely supportive throughout. They have guided and cajoled me and have always shown a keen interest in my work. I will miss our monthly meetings. I would also like to thank Dr Simon Lillystone, my third supervisor whose calm persona has got me through some tricky quantitative times!

I would like to thank the student participants for being accepting of me and giving their time. They openly shared so many experiences and made this study possible. I am also grateful to the academic participants for their trust in me and also for the genuine interest they have shown in this study. Again without their support this study would not have been possible.

There are a number of other colleagues at Newcastle Business School who I would like to thank who have been supportive in a number of ways from just asking 'how it was going' to giving me rooms in which to conduct my research interviews. Thank you.

Finally thank you to my family. It is not easy writing a thesis but equally it is not easy to live with someone who is doing a DBA! I do appreciate your support and am very proud of what we have achieved.

DECLARATION

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is all my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas and contributions from the work of others.

Any ethical clearance for the research presented in this thesis has been approved. Approval has been sought and granted by the Faculty Ethics Committee in March 2013

I declare that the word count of this thesis is 61,874(excluding tables)

Name: Pamela Croney

Signature:

Date:

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

A preliminary thought on the importance of this work, courtesy of Terry Pratchett (1994):

Many things went on at Unseen University and, regrettably, teaching had to be one of them. The faculty had long ago confronted this fact and had perfected various devices for avoiding it. But this was perfectly all right because, to be fair, so had the students.

Pratchett's cynical view of the expectations that academics and students have of their relationship may resonate with some but does it have any relevance for contemporary pedagogic relationships? This study aims to explore this relationship and consider to what extent the sentiments expressed above are evident.

This opening chapter provides an overview of the research focus and its context. Firstly the motivations and role of the researcher within the process will be presented as these were fundamental to the development of the research aim as well as the methodology. The focus and rationale of the research will then be presented alongside an explanation of the contribution that this study will make to our understanding of contemporary pedagogic relationships and the positioning of the work in relation to the literature. The research aim and objectives will be outlined before providing an overview of the importance of this work and how it differs from previous research. Finally an outline of the structure of this thesis will be presented.

1.2 Motivations and the Role of the Researcher

A significant motive for this study is the personal and professional interest that I hold in the subject. My professional identity has had implications for both the design of the inquiry and analysis of the findings.

I am a former Business and Economics high school teacher (1989 - 2012) who has experienced first-hand the changes that have occurred in post-16 teaching methods and

practices, leading to what some may deem to be more of a ‘spoon feeding approach’ to teaching and learning (Brinkworth, McCann, Matthews & Nordstrom, 2009; Jeffrey, 2012; Lane, 2010). I was also one of the teachers who felt under pressure to help students gain a place at university and to improve academic grades within their institution, which led perhaps to “increased assistance” (Brinkworth *et al.*, 2009, p. 158) to students which may have brought about unrealistic expectations of what students will meet from the pedagogic relationship once at university.

For the last five years of my teaching career I also worked part time at the case study university as Schools Liaison Coordinator and as a Module Tutor for a L4 (first year undergraduate) programme. As an academic, I have expectations of students and a personal understanding of my role within the pedagogic relationship. This study has therefore emanated from an *emic* perspective; emic suggesting a subjective, informed and significant standpoint as opposed to an *etic* perspective that is more objective, logical and divorced from the project (Headland, Pike & Harris, 1990). There have been a number of complex but interrelated reasons that led to this study of ‘my own kind’ (educationalists) and of ‘my own wards’ (students); these will be discussed in detail later (see section 4.2). The significance of my roles, both past and present, differentiates this study considerably from other studies on student expectations as I have experience of expectations across the different educational sectors, which will allow for a more perceptive analysis of the research findings (Johns, 2001).

Furthermore, my past experience and interests have led to the choice of a professional doctorate, with its clear focus on developing and improving professional practice, as an overriding aim of this study is to make recommendations to improve the pedagogic relationship within business education.

The motivation and experience of the researcher influenced the design of the study and the analysis and presentation of the results, providing a unique perspective and outlook on this important issue. The importance of this issue along with the focus and rationale of the study will now be considered.

1.3 Focus and Rationale of the Study

This study focuses on how expectations of the pedagogic relationship can affect student experience and whether the psychological contract (hereafter PC) can offer a framework to explain the reciprocal obligations that students and academics may have to one another in the context of the present Higher Education (hereafter HE) environment. Expectations of both first year students and academics will be sought to allow for an understanding of the reciprocity of the relationship. The study is intended to be a timely and significant contribution to an HE context which has changed markedly over the past decade where both students' and academics' expectations of their university experience have changed which has led to some "disconnect" (Smith & Wertlieb, 2005) and "misconceptions" (Bates & Kaye, 2014).

At this point it is pertinent to define a pedagogic relationship in the context of this research. A basic premise for a definition of pedagogy is "any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another" (Mortimore, 1999, p. 3); thus a pedagogic relationship is that which exists between teachers (academics) and their students with the purpose of facilitating learning and consists of activities undertaken by both parties to contribute to this. Role requirements are the actions and responsibilities of the stakeholders to ensure a satisfactory outcome within the pedagogic relationship. Role obligations of students and lecturers in HE is itself a much debated topic and will be deliberated later (see section 2.2).

1.3.1 Focus on Expectations

This research will look at the expectations of both academics and students of the pedagogic relationship – a relationship which has been identified by many as most important to a successful student experience (see section 2.2.1).

Prior research into academic expectations (see section 2.3.4) has concentrated on how academics have perceived changes in students' expectations and has not sought to examine whether academics' perceptions of student expectations may have an effect on student experience. In this study academic expectations are explored in order to establish the impact that fulfilment/breach of these expectations may have on student experience.

Previous research into student expectations (see section 2.3.3) has tended to focus on areas such as expected teaching and learning styles and expected social adjustments and has taken a quantitative approach; to my knowledge, no study has focused exclusively on the expectations of the pedagogic relationship *i.e.* the expectations that students hold about what should happen in the teaching and learning environment. This enquiry has at its heart the importance of understanding student contemporary expectations of the interpersonal relationship, as arguably this is what matters most to students regarding their educational experience (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013).

Contemporary expectations are those expectations which have been formed by individuals within the present and in a particular context. In order to address these expectations it is necessary to have an understanding of the substantive context in which the research sits which enables the reader to place the whole research report in context (Johns, 2001).

In line with phenomenological principles (see section 3.3 and Appendix 2), if one does not have an understanding of the situational context it will be difficult to truly understand person-situation interactions (Johns, 2006), since our understanding always occurs within a certain horizon (Langdridge, 2007) and “we can never escape the life world, the complex and lived reality that is there for us whatever we do” (Dahlberg, Dahlberg & Nyström, 2008, p. 38). Furthermore, as this DBA aims to make an original contribution to professional practice, potential users of this research care about the context and this needs to be communicated to the intended audience so that impacts can be more authentic and authoritative (Johns, 1993).

Johns (2006) describes context as “situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organizational behaviour as well as functional relationships between variables” (p. 386). The essential point for this study is that context can have a subtle and powerful impact on research results through its interaction with the relationships under investigation. The organisational characteristics (as detailed in Appendix 1) will provide context for individuals whilst the external environment will provide context for both individuals and the organisation itself (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991).

The expectations of first year students have also been chosen as the focus as previous research has shown that “higher education learner identity” (Briggs, Clark & Hall, 2012, p. 16) is imperative to successful student achievement and needs to be developed as early as possible, suggesting that an understanding of first year student expectations can support initiatives to develop an appropriate identity.

With regards to an identification and exploration of academic expectations of the pedagogic relationship minimal research has previously been conducted (see section 2.3.4). This study represents an opportunity to address this and contribute to our understanding of whether there is a difference in contemporary expectations between academics and students and if so whether this affects the student experience. This will be of interest to all those involved in the management of student expectations within HE.

1.3.2 Focus on Psychological Contracts

The PC was originally a construct used to understand behaviour at work between the employer and employee with a clear focus on the employment relationship (Conway & Briner, 2005; Rousseau, 1995). Its contents having been defined as an employee's "expectations of what the employee feels she or he owes and is owed in turn by the organisation" (Rousseau, 1990, p.393). It can be used as a powerful explanatory concept (Guest, 1988, p. 649) and in more recent times it has been used by some as a framework to understand and manage relationships in the education sector (see section 3.3). The research in this field though has been limited. It is perhaps surprising that researchers have not studied the expectations of the pedagogic relationship during the critical socialisation period when students and academics first encounter one another. Nor has any of the research examined the process and formation of the PC to gain a deeper insight into how it may operate within HE so that more informed interventions may be put in place to improve psychological contracting and the pedagogic relationship. This study has as its focus the first year undergraduate student experience and can contribute towards the identification and understanding of the origins of students' and staff perceptions of the PC which can help address any future potential misconceptions.

This study also aims to show that the PC framework can provide an insight into the perceptions of mutual obligations/commitments within the pedagogic relationship, including an understanding of how these perceptions were formed, an indication of how/whether these change during the experience, when and how these perceptions are fulfilled or breached and the consequences of this. This will allow for a better understanding of students' perceptions of the academic's obligations and also the academic's perceptions of the student's obligations and their impacts on student experience.

The PC also has a particular resonance in this specific context as its framework is fluid and can accommodate changes which take place in the dynamics of relationships (Conway & Briner, 2005; Guest, 1988), making it most suitable for exploring the relationships between academics and students. It can “capture the spirit of our times” (Guest, 1998, p. 659).

This section has provided justification for this study and has indicated why this research is important and of its time.

1.4 Research Question and Objectives

From the previous discussion on the focus and rationale for this study it is proposed that this DBA can make a contribution to business and management education in HE by exploring the following research question:

How do expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year business and management student experience?

In line with this research question the following research objectives (ROs) were identified from the extant literature and gaps in existing knowledge:

RO1. To explore first year business students’ expectations of their academics within the pedagogic relationship.

RO2. To explore how have these expectations been formed.

RO3. To explore how student expectations of the pedagogic relationship change over the first year.

RO4. To explore academics’ expectations and their perceptions of students’ expectations regarding the pedagogic relationship.

RO5. To explore the implications of differences between academics’ and students’ expectations.

RO6. To explore whether an understanding of the psychological contract may explain the reciprocal obligations students and academics have to one another in the context of the present HE environment.

1.5 How this research differs from its predecessors

This study intends to contribute to the extant research in this area in a number of ways. Firstly by examining undergraduate business students' and their academics' expectations post 2012 (from September 2012 universities have been able to charge up to £9000 a year) new information and understanding will be gained on the impact that the increase in fees may have on student experience. Secondly it examines these expectations of relationships using a phenomenological approach providing much needed further knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon from the lived experiences of the participants themselves, supporting the call from Kandiko and Mawer (2013) that whilst much has been written on what students expect from HE, "reality as experienced by the student [and academic]" (p.15) is an under-researched area.

This research also aims to identify and understand the origins of expectations from a students' perspective which again has been under-researched (Koskina, 2011) and takes a longitudinal approach.

1.6 The importance of this research

The HE context and landscape has changed significantly over the past decade and may have operated as a moderator of expectations within pedagogic relationships. A range of factors are seen to be affecting the viability of traditional pedagogic relations including the further increase in tuition fees, changes in the assessment and content of curriculum at L3 and the widening participation agenda which has seen a more diverse student body (Craig, 2015).

For Jones (2010) and others, the increase in tuition fees has heightened students' demand for value for money. One reaction is the replacement of "the supplier- driven, take-it-or-leave-it model" (Tricker, 2005) by a customer service model in a context in which customers have expectations partly formed by learning dependency on teachers developed in their previous institutions.

This study is both timely and relevant as it will explore whether this dynamic external environment has impacted upon expectations within the pedagogic relationship and the affect that this may have on student experience. It is worth noting that the study was also undertaken prior to the implementation of the teaching excellence framework (TEF) which will see the

government monitoring and assessing the quality of teaching in England's universities with an aim to improve teaching standards in HE which have been described by Willetts, a former universities minister, in an interview with Gill (2015) "as by far the weakest aspect of English higher education".

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters. **Chapter 2** critically reviews existing literature in the fields of education and organisational behaviour to ascertain the importance of preconceived expectations of the pedagogic relationships between students and academic staff. Key areas for consideration include contemporary roles and relationships within education, expectations within pedagogic relationships and the complexity of universities and their habitus.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework of the study and examines the potential of the PC concept to both explore and evaluate the state of the pedagogic relationship and also to ascertain whether it can help inform improvements to the management of expectations within HE.

Chapter 4, Research Methodology, Designs and Methods, identifies the epistemological and philosophical underpinnings to the research before proceeding to discuss the methods chosen for data collection and analysis. A rationale for the use of a mixed method approach at the data collection stage will be given before justification of the appropriateness of template analysis for this phenomenological and exploratory research.

Findings, Analysis and Synthesis are presented in **Chapter 5**. Findings from the quantitative research will be presented initially followed by the findings from the qualitative research. As the findings unfold, results will be compared with those of extant literature. A discursive account of the findings will be presented with pertinent quotations provided as evidence for each theme and sub theme discussed.

In **Chapter 6, Discussions, Conclusions and Recommendations** are identified from the research and contributions to knowledge and professional practice are offered.

1.8 Chapter Summary

This first chapter has outlined the focus and rationale of the study highlighting the importance of the role of the researcher within the research and the context in which the research takes place. The potential contribution has been highlighted in terms of the use of psychological contracting theory as a potential framework to explain and extend our knowledge and understanding of the phenomena of expectations of the pedagogic relationship and its impact on the first year student experience.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review – Relationships, Roles and Expectations

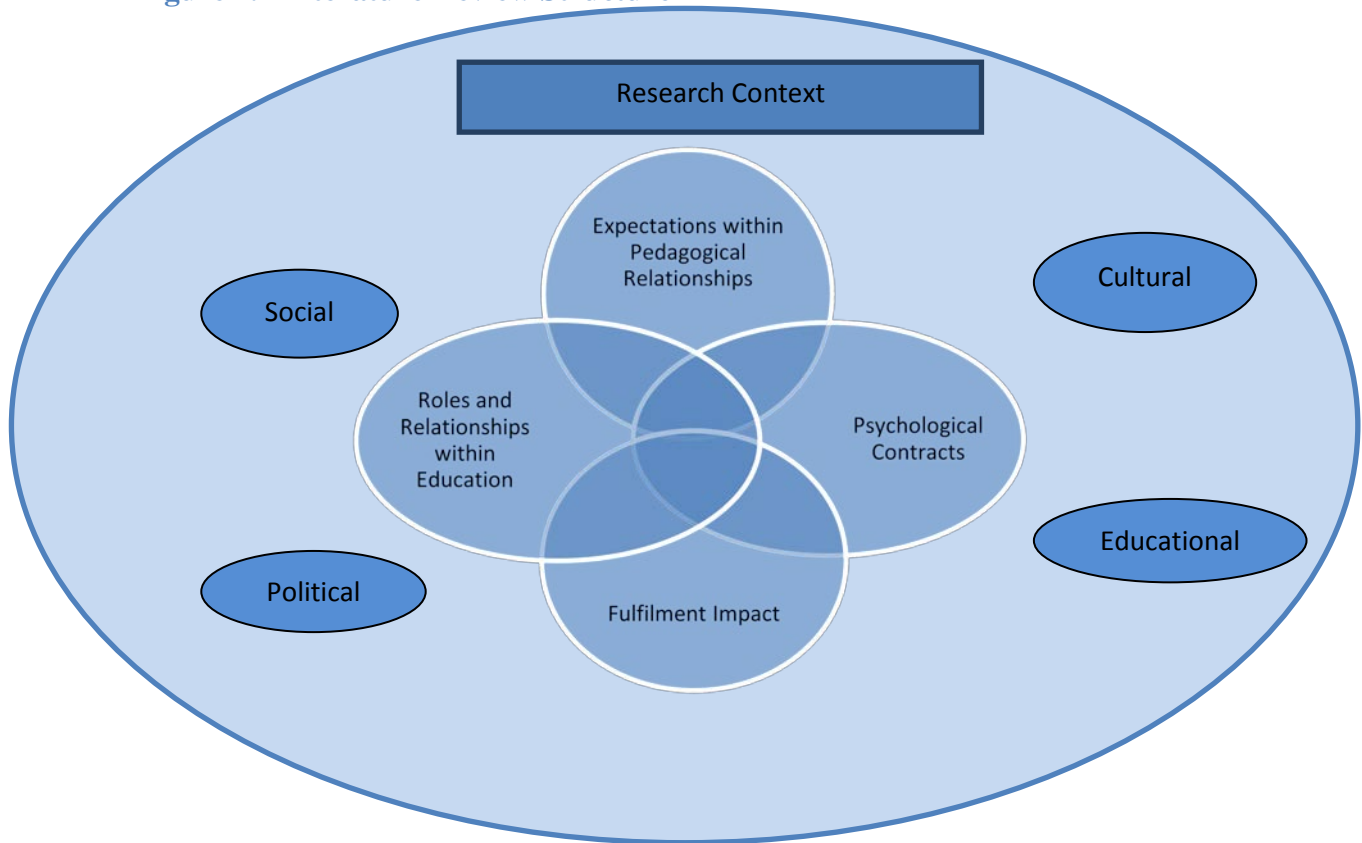
2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to critically review existing literature in the fields of education and organisational behaviour to ascertain the importance of preconceived expectations of the interpersonal pedagogic relationships between students and academic staff.

As acknowledged in Chapter 1 the matter of understanding and managing student expectations within education has been the focus of significant research over the past 20 years. Subsequently, the objective of this chapter is to reconcile the key aspects of theory and research within the discipline in order to explore the research question ‘How do expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year student experience?’ The literature review, which is located in Chapters 2 and 3, will be presented therefore as in Figure 2.1 with the key areas for consideration being represented by each set.

The review will begin with a consideration of the importance of effective pedagogic relationships in HE. Next it will consider how the nature of this relationship has evolved in recent years due to changes in the context of how HE is financed, the implications of widening participation and the “commodification of education” debate (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013). Extant literature on the issues surrounding student attrition will be synthesised throughout to establish whether non-fulfilment of expectations can lead to an adverse student experience. Chapter 3 will present the theoretical framework of the study that is framed within the construct of psychological contracts and will conclude by outlining how this framework is appropriate to this study.

Figure 2.1 Literature Review Structure



2.2 Relationships and Roles

2.2.1 Relationships within Education

“The pedagogical relationship is a very important one with regards to students achieving their goals and completing their academic programme” (Harding & Thompson, 2011).

Harding and Thompson (2011) are among many researchers who have highlighted the importance of the pedagogical relationship to a successful student experience. This is consistent with wider research indicating the importance of interaction in service industries (Ahmed, Ismail, Amin & Islam, 2014; Clewes, 2003; Hill, Lomas & MacGregor, 2003; Oldfield & Baron, 2000; Pieters, Bottschen, & Thelen, 1998; Sanchez, Pecino, Rodriguez & Melero, 2011; Shank, Walker & Hayes, 1996). Naidoo and Jamieson (2005) state that “research on teaching and learning has illustrated the pivotal role of the quality of the pedagogical relationship on effective learning” (p.272) whilst research undertaken by Kandiko and Mawer (2013) seems to suggest that it is the engagement with staff that appears to be “of arguably greater importance than the systems and substantive content of educational experiences” (p.46) to students. Voss, Gruber and Szmigin’s research (2007) advises that it is the qualities and behaviours of lecturers during the personal interaction in class which, to a

certain degree, enable students to achieve their personal goals and values, whilst Thomas (2002) suggests that “relationships are at the heart of student success” (p. 440). It is also one of the key predictors of successful academic performance (Yoon, 2002).

Research conducted on student engagement also reinforces this point suggesting that relations with students must be cultivated by staff by spending time on developing relationships and trust (Bryson & Hand, 2007). One way to build trust is to find out what student expectations are and then to work with students to remodel them so that they are realistic and mutual (Bryson, McDowell, McGugan & Sander, 2014). The importance of the relational dimension of education is present in much of the literature regarding students’ accounts of good teaching and learning which suggests that teachers should provide a warm welcome, a sense of sharing and respect and create an environment in which a sense of belonging and mutuality can grow (Mann, 2001; Kember, Lee & Li, 2001).

Ridley (2004) argues that “sensitivity and understanding between students and tutors” (p. 96) can be very significant in overcoming problems at the start of a student’s university career, consistent with both the inclusion of academic engagement in Tinto’s (1993) model of student retention and Zepke and Leach’s (2007) finding that retention is improved by “learner-centred teachers” (p.656). Other research into transition suggests a significant mismatch and poor alignment (Owen & Gordon, 2014) between learning styles and teaching methods between the secondary and HE sectors (Brinkworth *et al.*, 2009) which “is acute and remains fraught with inconsistencies” (p. 169). Educational reforms over the past decade have led to an ever increasing emphasis on results and to the perception by many that teaching at L3 is “assessment-driven rather than learning-driven” (Jeffery, 2012, p. 71). These reforms have also exaggerated earlier concerns. For example, Clinton (2011) draws upon James’ (2002) finding that students were increasingly indicating a preference for “spoon-feeding” (p. 25) approaches to teaching. This concurs with Booth’s (2005) critique of the impact of a fact-finding approach for the prospects of deep learning. Pressure on secondary school teachers to ‘get students into university’ or indeed to improve academic grades within their institution may have meant that there has been an increase in educational assistance to students which has changed the nature of student-teacher relationships and their roles within secondary education. In line with their predictions, Crabtree, Roberts and Tyler (2007) found that teaching at L3 focused on achieving government and school targeted success rates as opposed to learning. This has perhaps created unrealistic student expectations of university pedagogy. This pressure has also been seen within further education (hereafter FE) institutions where the need for student retention and student success has forced teaching staff into “exam-focused

learning at the expense of more independent learning experiences” (McQueen & Webber, 2009, p. 241). Further evidence is provided by Jephcote, Salisbury and Rees (2008) who acknowledged the amount of physical and emotional energy supplied by (FE) teachers to ensure student success. Little research has been carried out however on whether this school/college level interpersonal relationship with teachers has impacted on students’ perceptions and expectations of the interpersonal pedagogic relationship at university and on first year academic achievement and satisfaction, although Lane (2010) did identify that students expected “more, more, more!”(p.10) in terms of help and support within a classroom-type environment. This research project addresses this gap in the literature with the aim of establishing the extent to which past pedagogic relationship experience within the secondary/FE sector has informed undergraduate expectations as stated in RO2.

Furthermore although research has identified strategies and ‘best practice’ models to ensure a smooth transition for students from school/FE to HE (Briggs *et al.*, 2012), many of the transitional activities focus on preparing students for the social and cultural changes and challenges that they can expect and not on the academic adjustment. According to Briggs *et al.* (2012) however this could be essential to developing “higher education learner identity” and reduce the potential for students to find themselves trapped in the liminal¹ space *i.e.* a kind of flux where students are met with encounters and new concepts with which they struggle to cope and which can impact on their transition to and transformation into university student (Land & Rattray, 2014). Kember (2001) recognised that those students who believed that it was the role of an academic to provide them with correct knowledge as opposed to a facilitation role to help improve the student’s own abilities in understanding issues and concepts were more likely to withdraw from university education. Ramsden (2008) further suggests that there is a need for transitional activities to continue during the course of the first year at university especially in building staff/student relationships. This is consistent with the possibility that HE institutions are not aware of first year undergraduates’ expectations and furthermore do not have the appropriate systems in place to manage these changing expectations. Marcus (2008) discussed this further and posits that academics may not understand the change in culture that students now come from with its focus on providing entirely what the student needs to know to succeed. He suggests that it is the role of universities to “address this gulf between the two levels of education” (p. 1).

The discussion thus far has focused on the importance of effective relationships in education and the potential differences which exist in relationships between students and their

¹ (Latin *limen* – ‘threshold’)

secondary/FE instructors compared to students and their HE instructors. However it has not acknowledged the possible impact of the increasing commoditisation of HE (Sabri, 2011) and its impact on the perceived roles and expectations of pedagogic relationships and therefore the next section will discuss contemporary literature in this area in order to ascertain the possible impact recent changes within the sector may have had on relationships.

2.2.2 Changing Perceptions of Student Role/Identity

A role can be defined as “a set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit” and role expectations as “the way others believe you should act in a given situation” (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2009, pgs. 221-222). In recent years there has been much discussion in the literature about the changing role of students and the implications of the transition from elite to mass HE systems across the globe (Coaldrake, 2001). This has led to what Haggis (2006) terms the ‘new student’ with new needs and expectations. The notion of a ‘typical’ student is obsolete as the widening participation agenda has succeeded in a greater number of students entering HE from diverse academic backgrounds (Archer, 2007) who often combine work with study, the ‘learner-earners’ (Broadbridge & Swanson, 2005; Coaldrake, 2001; Darmody & Fleming, 2009; Longden, 2006; Robotham, 2012) and an increased presence of working class and non-traditional students (Leathwood & Connell, 2003; Knox, 2005). Moreover, a consumerist culture has been developing in the UK HE system (Evans, 2007; Jones, 2010; Kandiko & Mawer, 2013) suggesting that the relationship between students and universities is now more based upon concepts of economic exchange (O’Toole & Prince, 2014), similar to that described by Duderstadt (1999) who talks of the transition in the USA from ‘student to learner to consumer’ where perhaps the degree is seen primarily, if not exclusively, as an economic advantage. This has led to further debate concerning the clarification of roles and responsibilities of students and academic staff within this relationship. Since the introduction of tuition fees within the UK (1998), students have additional and increasing grounds to be considered internal stakeholders of their university with more salience, moving to a position of “definitive” stakeholder as categorised by Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997), with power, legitimacy and urgency.

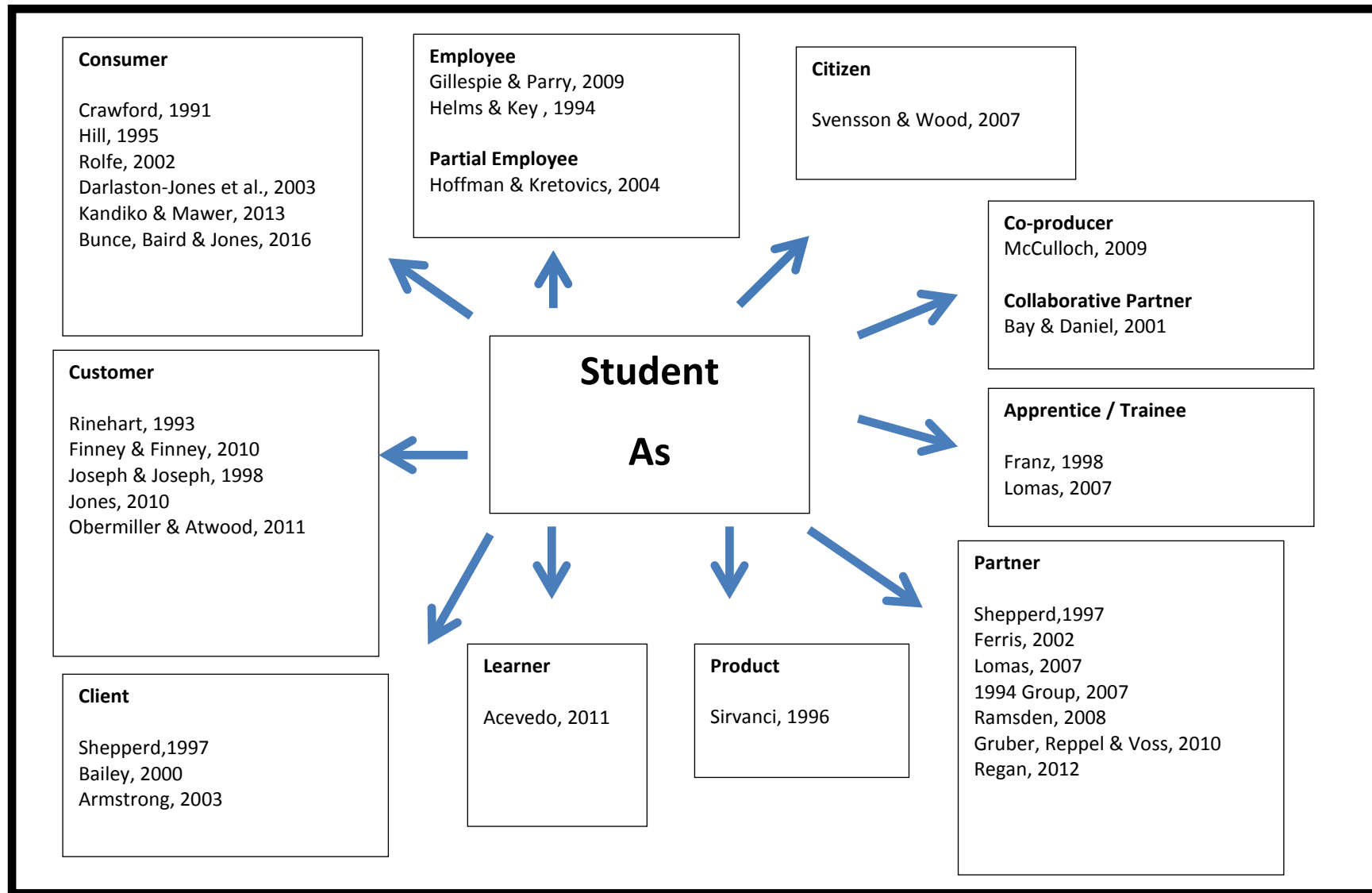
Figure 2.2 illustrates the many and varied terms used within recent literature to categorise student role. Such diversity is important as “the way we label people reflects how we think

about them and treat them or, at the very least, how we intend or expect to treat them.” (Acevedo, 2011. p. 2).² Our expectations of how they will behave stems from our perception. As such, if we perceive the student as a customer we believe them to have certain expectations and to act in a particular way; furthermore if students themselves are constantly referred to as customers then they may change their expectations of how education should be delivered to them and their role within the process. This understanding is also shared by Woodall, Hiller and Resnick (2012) in acknowledging that they “do not claim that students *are* customers but, rather, that they *can* be customers” and that the student may now see the term ‘customer’ as a more “legitimate frame of reference and analysis” (p. 4). It is this social construction of identities which necessitates an appreciation of students’ current expectations to become a shared concern for those involved in HE.

The other concepts of student as detailed in Figure 2.2 emphasise student accountability and acknowledge the more active role required from the student in producing knowledge. The use of such multiple metaphors can create confusion and it has been suggested that perhaps none of the terms employed “convey the complexity of the situation” (Helms & Key, 1994, p. 4). This complexity can be deemed to have increased even beyond that suggested by Helms and Key (1994) with the rise in tuition fees. Perhaps there is an argument to suggest that each of these perspectives of ‘what a student is’ can offer value – *i.e.* students are part customer, part employee, part co-producer (Hoffman & Kretovics, 2004). For example students could be viewed as employees as they do need to be actively engaged to perform at their best and they also have performance expectations placed upon them. However, students are not monetarily compensated for their effort/work and cannot be ‘hired and fired’ in the traditional sense. A study by Little, Locke, Scesa and Williams (2009) on student engagement within HE noted that within Business Studies there was “perhaps a more developed concept of student as customer” (p. 39) suggesting the need for a more customer-faced approach within the faculty. The focus of this phenomenological research is to capture students’ expectations and perceptions of the pedagogic relationship in the world as they understand it now and what this means to them. Hence an appreciation and recognition of the different potential identities that students may have is important (Langdridge, 2007).

² This relationship will be returned to later in Section * when discussing the perceptions of expectations within Psychological Contracts.

Figure 2.2 Student Referred to As



Discussions within the literature show that whilst many authors acknowledge that students could be perceived as customers for certain services within the university, for example accommodation, financial services, library *etc.* (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Hill, 1995; Murphy, 2011), this should not be the case with regards to the teacher student relationship, as this is “not intrinsically economic” (Delucchi & Korgen 2002, p. 106). Significant critical literature has challenged the claim that students should be seen as customers and highlighted its pernicious effects (Murphy, 2011). It has been posited that connotations of students as customers has brought about a culture of ‘entitlement’ within the university sector and a number of negative educational outcomes (Acevedo, 2011). Substantial claims are made by many that “consumer sovereignty in HE conflicts with the goals of effective pedagogy” (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002, p. 100), students who perceive themselves as customers are “likely to hold attitudes and to engage in behaviours that are not conducive to success as a student” (Finney & Finney, 2010, p.286) and that “the pedagogic relationship between teacher and learner may be compromised” (Naidoo & Jamieson, 2005, p. 272). Moreover if the relationship becomes one of a customer and seller then “ethical obligations are generally limited to contractual claims” (Acevedo, 2011, p. 5) thereby changing the nature of the interpersonal pedagogic relationship and furthermore highlighting the importance of an understanding of PCs and the implications of a breach as discussed later in Chapter 3. Naidoo and Jamieson (2005) also recognise the impact of such a contractual model upon relationships and the potential erosion of “‘hard to measure’ emotional attributes” (p. 274) between the parties, thus limiting the interpersonal pedagogic relationship to a list of specific objectives as identified in a job description.

However, of particular interest within this study is not just the perceptions of academics towards the role of students, but also how students actually perceive their role and the academic’s role, as this may impact and shape their expectations of the pedagogic relationship. Research by Naidoo and Jamieson (2005) suggests that, within the learning and teaching relationship, as students start to perceive their role as ‘consumer’ they become disengaged and lack responsibility for their role in the learning process. Consistent with this, Finney and Finney (2010) found that those students who perceived themselves as ‘customers’ were more likely to feel entitled and to see the benefits of complaining. Commercial marketing research (JWT, 2012) talks of “Generation Z”, those born after 1995 who can be considered as the “first true mobile mavens” (p. 3); in terms of HE “Gen Z” will be conscious of tuition fees due to their parents being less able to help financially and will also expect the

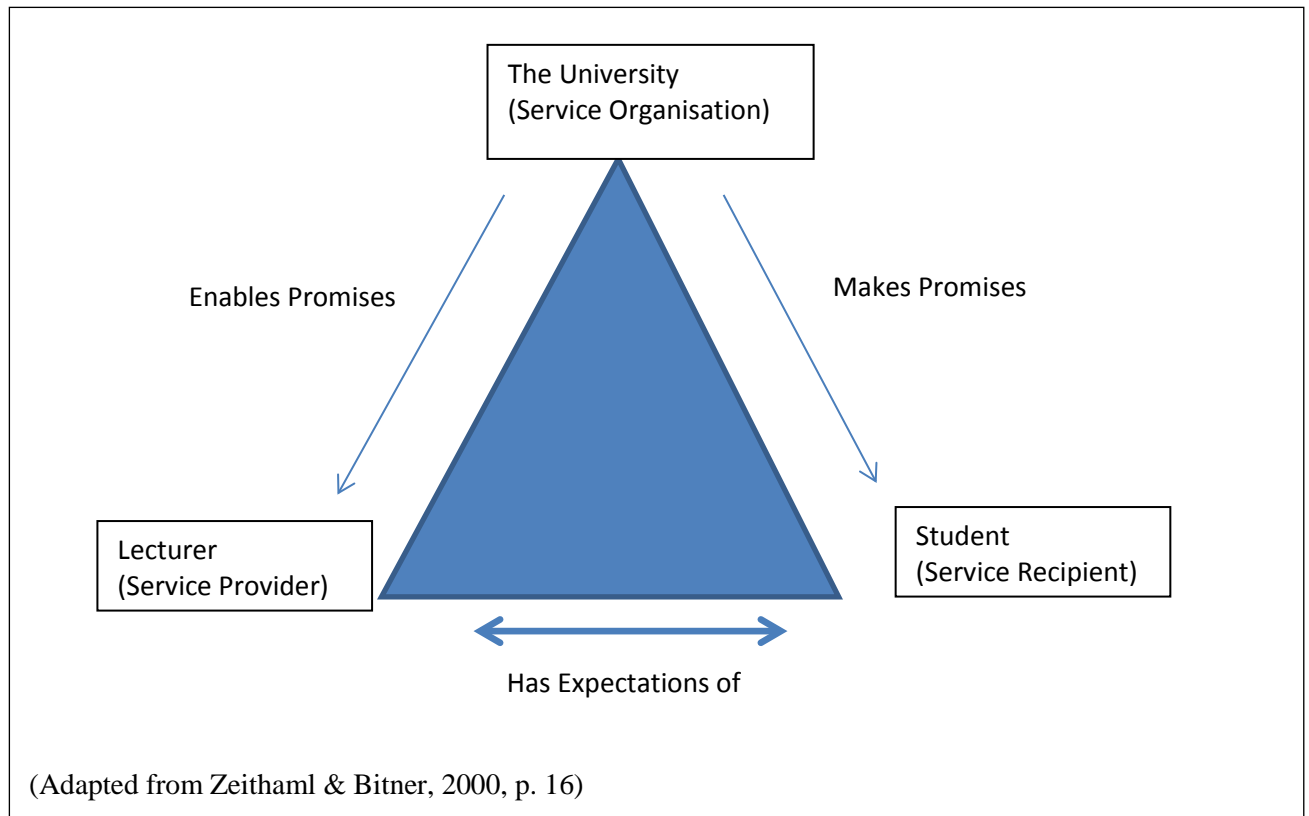
highest standard of education. They will also expect their HE choice of institution to be pushing the boundaries in terms of technological capabilities and communication methods with a further expectation of a two-way relationship in their learning, access to global networks and to industry experts. This generation are also more likely to be closely connected to their parents and have little experience of failure which also impacts upon their expectations and experiences of HE (Marcus, 2008).

It is important to note at this stage that education is unlike many other services since by its very nature, it involves working *with* rather than *for* the customer, so that the participation of the latter is always required (Hennig-Thurau, Langer & Hansen, 2001). Within the service quality context, “service productivity and quality depend not only on the performance of the service provider’s personnel, but also on the performance of the consumer” (Hill, 1995, p. 11). This has implications for how student role is perceived. Whilst it is not acknowledged that the student is a customer of a service in its purest sense: “A person, company, or other entity which buys goods and services produced by another person, company, or other entity” (Investorwords, 2012), it is noted that they do share similar characteristics of the traditional consumer in that they may perceive themselves to be buying a service, education, from a particular institution and the principal agent in delivering this service is, in their eyes, the member of academic staff. Therefore the relationship between the parties can be seen much more as a service transaction and universities as customer-oriented bureaucracies.

The term customer-oriented bureaucracy was used by Korczynski within the Human Resource Management literature to describe those organisations who are required to be both rational, by responding to competitive pressure to improve customer efficiency, and irrational, to appeal to customers’ expectations and to give an impression of customer sovereignty. These “dual logics of rationalization and of customer-orientation potentially frequently lie in contradiction to each other” (Korczynski, 2004, p. 98). The onus to deliver the type of service to meet both these rational and irrational expectations lie within front line workers and in the context of higher education, it may be suggested that academics take on this role. Not all universities will consider themselves as “customer-driven entities” (Koskina, 2011, p. 5). However for many with the changing landscape of HE and the further consolidation of the student-as-consumer approach with the inclusion of students and universities under the Consumer Rights Act (2015), this type of entity may be an appropriate term to reveal the expectations of relationships which exist within the case study university. This relationship can be seen in Figure 2.3 which views the education service exchange

through the lens of a tripartite relationship; service recipient/customer – service provider/employee – service organisation/employer.

Figure 2.3 Services Education Triangle



Dunkin (2000) adds to this debate by highlighting the importance of the exchange relationship that the student holds with the academic staff member and likens the relationship to that of those found in health-care. When agreeing to a course of medical treatment the agreement is not just about an exchange of money for services between the patient and institution, the treatment is a process and the patient must not only trust the doctor's judgment but also be an active participant in the treatment (taking the prescribed medication, undertaking rehabilitation exercises, *etc.*). Likewise, within education the student has to take responsibility for their own learning but staff must ensure that they are responding to the student's needs. On this account the academic facilitates learning through the implementation of learning experiences which inform, provoke and challenge students whilst students engage actively with the prescribed activities - supporting the notion of student as a co-producer and generator of learning.

Svensson and Wood (2007) contend very strongly that the customer metaphor is most inappropriate to describe the role and behaviours of a student stating that a rise in student consumerism will have a negative impact upon the quality of university education, relegating the role of an academic member of staff to that of a car salesman, “money may let one purchase and drive a car, but money alone should not let one purchase and possess a university degree” (p. 22).

2.2.3 Motivation to Study

A further factor which may have impacted upon students’ expectations of their role and the pedagogic relationship is their motivation to study.

It has been noted that over the past 20 years the student population has become large and more diverse. This, in part, is due to the widening participation movement. A typical student is hard to define – no longer is the intake dominated by 18-21 year olds, living on campus, studying full time, attending lectures given by an academic elite and having a social life predominately with their peers (Ramsden 2008). Increasingly students live at home, work part-time, study off-campus and have social networks that reach far beyond HE. This research has as its focus the ‘traditional-aged’ student (entering university immediately after or within a couple of years of leaving secondary education) who, it has been suggested, possesses certain generational qualities which are not conducive to traditional university pedagogical styles and ways of learning such as an absence of true intellectual curiosity and an overwhelmingly vocational or utilitarian view of the purpose of HE (Keup, 2008). This would suggest that there were conflicts of substantive interest between academics and students, with students seeing their studies as a means to obtain a degree which in turn allows them to access preferred occupations. As such they do not necessarily value knowledge for its own sake or appreciate ideas which are theoretically important. Recent research in Australia suggests that many students see university as vocational rather than the source of a liberal education and that they have a “time-savvy” approach to their studies, balancing study with other commitments (Tarrant, 2006), suggesting that many students are in HE to simply acquire the qualification which will provide access to improved career prospects.

Research by Byrne and Flood (2005) with accounting students supports the idea that career and educational aspirations are the main reasons why students choose to go to university - thus primarily motivated by extrinsic goals. However they also recorded students' motivations to develop intellectually and to learn more about a subject that they had enjoyed in school – an intrinsic motivation. Both types of motivations can have an impact upon learning although they have been associated with different learning styles. Entwistle (1988) found that intrinsic motivation was linked to a deep approach to learning and a desire to learn for the sake of understanding; whereas extrinsic motivation was related to a more superfluous learning approach involving rote learning (Charlton *et al.*, 2006; Entwistle, 1988). This suggests that motivations can impact on students' expectations of the pedagogic relationship.

This section has discussed the changing motivations of students and how this may impact upon their expectations of the pedagogic relationship. It has identified the different ways that students can be labelled and has intimated that this may have a significant impact upon how they perceive themselves and thus their expectations of university and in particular their expectations of qualities and behaviours of academics (Vos *et al.*, 2007). However, although the particular content of expectations may change the importance of expectation fulfilment to positive student experience does not. As Murphy (2011) states “the form the relation has taken is less significant than the relation itself” (p. 512). It is important also to look at the role of the academic to see whether it has changed and whether this has had implications as to how they perceive their responsibilities and what they now expect from students from the pedagogic relationship. The next section will address this.

2.2.4 Changing Perceptions of Academics' Role/Identity

In comparison to student role very little has been written as to how the academic's role has changed in recent years concerning their expectations of the teaching and learning relationship. The literature, where it does exist, generally paints a rather pessimistic picture (Tight, 2010) where academics have come under increasing pressure from managerialism (Hyde, Clarke & Drennan, 2013; Rostan, 2010), increasing influence of the market (O'Hear, 1988) and the increasing performance orientated nature of the sector (Olssen & Peters, 2005). There is a perception that academics now have to balance increasing workloads whilst responding to increasing students' demands and respecting the academic culture (Houston,

Meyer & Paewai, 2006). It has been claimed that these factors have impacted upon academic freedom. Research conducted by Dowlin-Hetherington (2014) provides further evidence of a more demanding work environment with an increasing focus on a greater number of research outputs, more routine administration and teaching and learning compliance and greater intensification of work and working hours. Rolfe (2002) also commented that many academics, due to the introduction of tuition fees and the perceived need to provide ‘value for money’ to students, regarded their work as more stressful and found themselves dissatisfied with many aspects of their role.

Many ‘new’ universities³ have seen a move towards a more Humboldtian university model. In this model the purpose of the university is to move knowledge forward by “original and critical investigation, not just to transmit the legacy of the past or to teach skills..... research must be an integral part of every university's activities” (Anderson, 2010). This has placed significant emphasis on research and its outputs and perhaps less emphasis on the quality of teaching and contribution in the class (Dowlin-Hetherington, 2014). Jenkins (2004) suggests that teaching and research can be synergistic and complementary or antagonistic and competing. This may be perceived to be the situation at the case study university where academic staff have been encouraged to be more research active whilst retaining the same teaching commitments, as exemplified with the introduction of an ‘Academic and Workload Planning Policy’ which specifies that 40% of an academic’s time must be spent on research, enterprise or scholarly activities where previously this was not documented. This shift of emphasis within the institution has arguably changed the role of the academic within the university and possibly their expectations of their responsibilities within the pedagogic relationship (Dowlin-Hetherington, 2014; Houston *et al.*, 2006 and Hyde *et al.*, 2013).

Academics are also viewed as members of a professional body and as such their professional roles and responsibilities within the work setting can be seen to be consistent with the ideology of this professional work. Bunderson (2001) proposes that the broader social structure to which these academics belong impacts upon how they perceive their role and provides a context which shapes their responsibilities and obligations. This may provide one possible explanation as to why the perceived role of the academic has not changed significantly. In addition, the findings of Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin and Schwartz

³ This term specifically relates to any of the former polytechnics, central institutions or colleges of HE that were given university status in 1992 (through the Further and Higher Education Act 1992) — as well as colleges that have since been granted university status.

(1997), in their study on orientation towards work, shows that individuals tend to see their work as a job, a career or a calling. This may again help us to understand the actions of academics within the pedagogic relationship as those individuals with a ‘calling’ orientation may perceive their work as “an extension of self or lifetime commitment” (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003, p. 578) and that they have a duty to fulfil the obligations set by their profession even where there would appear to be no reciprocity within the relationship. This also reinforces Regan’s (2012) point that academics do have moral obligations to their students within the pedagogic relationship.

The literature on academics’ perceptions of students’ expectations since the introduction of tuition fees and the perceived increased pressure on their role is sparse and this research aims to correct this in part through RO4 with an aim to explore academics’ expectations and their perceptions of students’ expectations regarding the pedagogic relationship. Furthermore there is no research to evidence whether the changing perceptions of academics have affected the expectations of students themselves and this will also be addressed within the study through RO5 by exploring whether differences in expectations between academics and students exist and whether this matters in the context of the pedagogic relationship.

Thus far the literature review has focused upon the changing nature of the roles and responsibilities of students and academic staff and the potential impact these changes in perceptions may have had on their expectations of the pedagogic relationship. The importance of this relationship has been explained in the context of improved retention and a beneficial student experience. However the concept of institutional habitus (Bourdieu, 1993; Reay, David & Ball, 2001), both within schools and universities, may also impact upon current expectations and this will now be discussed.

2.2.5 Institutional Habitus

Institutional habitus can be understood as “the impact of a cultural group or social class on an individual’s behaviour as it is mediated through an organisation” (Reay, David & Ball, 2001, p. 2). The term “habitus” was created by Bourdieu to refer to the norms and practices of particular groups and classes (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990) and the concept of institutional habitus draws on the principles of this work and further develops the notion in relation to

organisations. It is seen as more than the culture of an organisation as it refers to “relational issues and priorities, which are deeply embedded, and sub-consciously informing practice” (Thomas, 2002, p. 431). Reay *et al.* (2001) found that an understanding of the concept could improve our understanding of the ways in which educational institutions influence HE choices, whereas Thomas (2002) acknowledged that the concept could be useful in relation to student retention. For example, if a student has been exposed to one type of institutional habitus which then informs their own personal habitus, the exposure to a contradictory institutional habitus may increase personal and academic insecurities which may cause a student to withdraw. Distinct relations between role-holders are critical indicators of an institutional habitus and this is the case within educational institutions (Grenfell & James, 1998).

A traditional institutional habitus within HE may assume that the dominant group (*e.g.* white, male, middle class, *etc.*) is legitimate and/or inflexible. This can lead to feelings of alienation by minority students. The HE sector continues to be dominated by an ‘inside out’ approach (Sander *et al.*, 2000) where it is assumed that those on the inside are best placed to know the needs of their students and what they should expect of the pedagogic relationship (Lea, Stephenson & Troy, 2003).

Conversely, the habitus of students coming into HE will be, in part, a reflection of the experiences gained in previous educational institutions *i.e.* schools and FE colleges. In their research, Torenbeek *et al.* (2011) recognised the impact, not only of teacher effectiveness, but also school effectiveness on a student’s ease of transition to HE, suggesting that the institution itself could shape expectations. This suggests that the institutional habitus which students have been exposed to at school and the subliminal messages assimilated therein may inform their expectations of relationships within a future HE institution. Furthermore Thomas’ (2002) research suggested that students were more likely “to persist within an educational institution that does not require them to radically deviate from their habitus” (p. 439) and that those institutions which retained students emphasised the importance of changing staff attitudes and relationships towards students so that all students felt included in the work undertaken within seminars and lectures.

The significance of the different pedagogical approaches used at L3 and at L4 is also further apparent from the conclusions drawn by Torenbeek *et al.* (2011) who conducted a study into the approach to teaching within a number of secondary schools in Holland. Specific school

characteristics at various levels *e.g.* context, school, classroom and students were identified and the impact these different variables had on first year achievement at university in a number of discipline areas, including Business, were recorded. They found that the approach to teaching in the upper three years of secondary education does impact upon first year achievement but not as they had expected. Their hypothesis that secondary schools which advocated an independent and self-regulated approach to learning would better prepare students for university, in terms of perceived fit and academic achievement, was disconfirmed, suggesting that students from teacher-centred teaching institutions fared better in the first year in the short term. Jansen and van der Meer (2012), also researching transition issues in Holland, found that students who had come through the new high school system in Holland⁴ appeared to have mastered precursory abilities (Barrie, 2006, 2007) better, such as the ability to work in groups, but at the expense of specific subject knowledge.

Such conflicting evidence suggests that further pedagogic adjustments may need to be made across the sectors to provide a smoother transition process leading to greater student satisfaction and academic success. This supports Rees and Wilkinson (2008) and others (Owen & Gordon, 2014; Smith & Wertlieb, 2005) in their conclusion that a “joined-up thinking” (p. 39) approach is needed across the sectors. This is further maintained by Kift (2008) in what she terms “Transition Pedagogy” (p. 5) where she contends that the first year experience is “everybody’s business” and that instead of reforming the secondary education experience and shaping students’ expectations here, it could be that the first year in HE should be adapted and reformed (Jansen & van der Meer, 2012; Kuh *et al.*, 2008; Tinto, 2006).

This section has considered the changing role of the academic and the possible impact that this may have upon the pedagogic relationship with regards to how this may have impacted upon academics’ expectation of their role and that of the student. The next section of this review will draw together previous research on student expectations.

⁴ A differentiated system where specific high schools prepared students for university level studies.

2.3 Expectations

Research across many disciplines has emphasised how expectations can strongly influence how a person reacts to an event (Remedies & Lieberman, 2008) and explain human behaviour (Sander *et al.*, 2000). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that how students react to their HE experience might be influenced by their prior expectations. Given the scope of the research question this section will explore the concept of expectations and review our contemporary understanding of student expectations.

2.3.1 A Definition of Expectations

Expectations serve as standards with which subsequent experiences are compared (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, 1990). Within the context of this research three areas of expectations are of particular interest – service quality, educational research and PC research and these are discussed in the following sections.

The service quality literature emphasises the distinction between predictive, normative and comparative expectations (Prakash, 1984). Predictive expectations are seen as estimates of the anticipated performance level of a service *i.e.* the perceived likelihood of something happening. Normative expectations are those that the person feels should be completed in order to provide a satisfactory service. Comparative expectations are those expectations based on previous experiences. Zeithaml *et al.* (1990) similarly distinguished between three types - desired, adequate and predicted.

Educational expectations can be seen as those beliefs that students “bring from their previous experience with similar situations and from their interpretations of cues in the current environment that tells them ‘what’s going on’ and what is appropriate behaviour” (Hall *et al.*, 2011, p. 2). The importance of expectations within education has a long history of research in connection with student achievement, successful transition and retention (Briggs *et al.*, 2012; Longden, 2006; Rees & Wilkinson, 2008; Sander *et al.*, 2000). It has also been suggested that student expectations are a key factor in determining the level of student satisfaction (Alves & Raposo, 2007; Zhang, Han & Gao, 2008).

In the PC literature expectations have been referred to simply as what the employee expects to receive from his or her employer (Wanous, 1977) and which “govern their relationship [*i.e.* employee and employer] to each other” (Levinson, Price, Munden & Solley, 1962, p. 21). There has been little attempt since then to define further the use of the term ‘expectations’ within the PC literature. However, the literature has revealed that two types of expectations have tended to be used when trying to measure expectations – normative and probabilistic (Higgins, 1992). Normative expectations are those that are seen as ought to/should occur based on an existing normative standard, whereas probabilistic expectations are those regarding the probability of something occurring (Roehling, 2008). There is much debate as to whether expectations *per se* are part of PCs and that it should only be those expectations arising from implicit or explicit promises of reciprocal exchange which should be included (Rousseau & McLean - Parks, 1993); see section 2.4.1 for more detail. Within education, both promissory and non-promissory expectations have been identified as important in achieving a successful pedagogic relationship (Koskina, 2011).

This research employs the normative standard of expectations where students and academic staff form expectations about what *should* happen in the pedagogic relationship. It will differentiate between promissory (obligatory and explicit, concerning what academic staff/students should or should not do) and non-promissory expectations (implicit, concerning those experiences that academic staff/students expect from their role). From a practical perspective it is important to know and understand what students and academic staff believe should happen during the pedagogic relationship so as to achieve an effective reciprocal exchange between both parties.

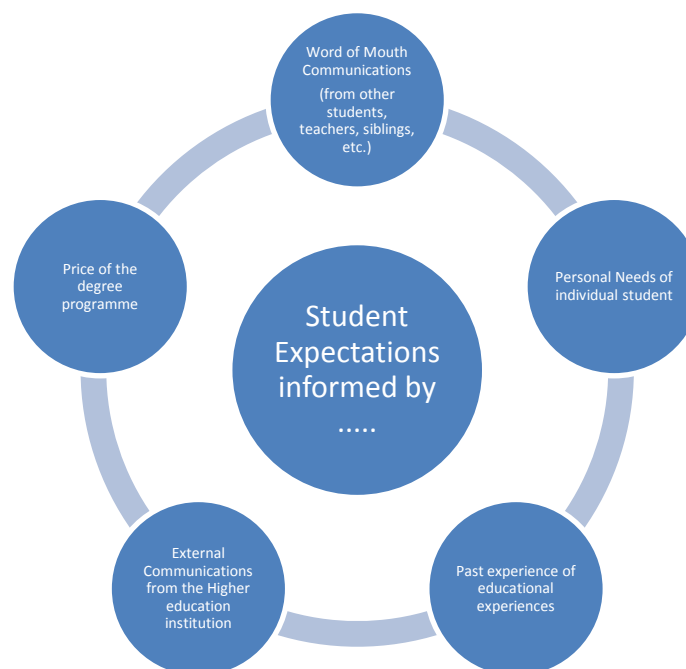
2.3.2 How Expectations are Formed

In order to understand how expectations are formed, some authors refer to the literature on cognitive scripts (McCallum & Harrison, 1985; Smith & Houston, 1986). Cognitive scripts are “schematic knowledge structures held in memory that specify behaviour or event sequences that are appropriate for specific situations” (Gioia & Poole, 1984, p. 1). Thus a cognitive script is a mental model developed by the individual which specifies the set of actions which should occur in a given situation, the order in which they occur and the individuals who should perform these actions. With repeated exposure to a situation (teaching

and learning within primary/secondary/FE sector) the individual (student) develops a script for that experience which will shape future expectations. Once formed these expectations will be the basis of evaluation for other exchange transactions in a similar context. Thus students' experiences gained in their previous educational environments will have produced a cognitive representation of a particular script which they will use to compare future experiences.

Zeithaml *et al.* (1990) also identified other specific factors which influence consumers' expectations of service quality which could also be used to explain how student expectations are formed. Figure 2.4 shows how these could be applied to the student pedagogic relationship. Little specific research has been conducted in the literature as to how expectations of first year students have been shaped; this doctoral study will explore how students' expectations of the pedagogic relationship are formed as an understanding of this may help explain future student experience and is reflected in RO2.

Figure 2.4 Specific Factors which may Influence the Expectations of Students of the pedagogic relationship



2.3.3 Research on Student Expectations

Previous research on student expectations since 1998 (the year tuition fees were introduced in the UK and the perceived dawn of a “consumerist ethos” across the student body) has tended to focus on areas such as expected teaching and learning styles and expected social adjustments. No study has concentrated on the expectations of the interpersonal relationship between student and academic and the consequences of any gap between expectations and actual experience. Previous research has also not taken a phenomenological approach to capturing the data from the perspectives of both parties involved *i.e.* undergraduate student and academic staff. This research will address these gaps through RO1 and RO4.

Table 2.1 summarises the main studies drawn upon in this literature review of expectations within HE, identifying the expectation and person focus used by the various researchers to explore the impact of student expectations on student experience. The majority of the studies have applied a quantitative research methodology suggesting the need for research in this area with a strong qualitative component to allow for further clarification and explanation of the phenomenon. Again, a significant number of studies have only collected data from a single HE institution, probably due to the fact that research has shown that there are many factors which may impact upon students’ expectations. These include culture (Shank, Walker & Hayes, 1996), gender (Walker, Shank & Hayes, 1994), age (Levine 1993) and social class (Reay *et al.*, 2009; Thomas 2012). As a result of such variability careful usage of the collected data is required, however the value of gathering information on students’ expectations, especially to the individual institution, outweighs any issues concerning generalisation (Hill, 1995).

Table 2.1 Empirical Studies on Impact of Student/Staff Expectations of University on Student Experience and Management of Expectations. (Inverse Chronological Order)

Study	Country of Focus	Methodology	Expectation Focus	Student / Staff Focus	Discipline
Bates and Kaye 2014	UK	Qualitative Focus Groups	* Contact time * Resources * Support * Employability * Value for money	Student (Year 1 – Pre and Post increase in tuition fees) 2 HEIs	Psychology
Kandiko and Mawer 2013	UK	Mixed Methods	* Ideology, Practices and Purpose * Course level – Quality and Standards * Student Role	Student (Years 1 and 2) Multiple HEIs	Various
Leese 2010	UK	Mixed Methods	Teaching and Learning	Student (Year 1) Single HEI	Early Childhood Studies
Lane 2010	UK	Quantitative	* Induction * Teaching * Materials * Assessment and Feedback	Student (Year 1) Single HEI	Law
Crisp, Palmer, Turnbull, Nettlebeck and Ward 2009	Australia	Mixed Methods Quan – Students Qual – Academic Staff	* Teaching and Learning * Assessment and Feedback * Work Commitment	Student (Year 1) Academic Staff Single HEI	Various

Brinkworth, McCann, Matthews and Nordström 2008	Australia	Quantitative	* General Expectations	Student (Year 1 and 2) Academic Staff Single HEI	Humanities Science
Remedios and Lieberman 2008	UK	Quantitative	* Assessment and Feedback (Grades) * Specific Course / Content	Student (Year 1, 2 and 3) Single HEI	Psychology
Voss, Gruber and Szmigin 2007	Germany	Qualitative	* Teaching Qualities	Student (Not specified) Single HEI	Business / Management
Appleton – Knapp and Krentler 2006	UK	Quantitative	*Course /Quality Service	Student (Not specified) Single Site	Marketing / Business
Smith and Wertlieb 2005	USA	Quantitative	* Social and Academic	Student (First year) Single HEI	Pre business
Byrne and Flood 2005	Ireland	Quantitative	* Social and Academic	Student (First Year) Single HEI	Accounting
Long and Tricker 2004	UK	Quantitative	* Workload * Choice * Support * Assessment	Student (First Year) Single HEI	Business Computing

Lowe and Cook 2003	Ireland	Quantitative	* Social and Academic	Student (Pre-enrolment) Single HEI – multiple sites	Various
Darlaston-Jones, Pike, Cohen, Young, Haunold and Drew 2003	Australia	Mixed Methods	*Service Delivery * Teaching Quality	Student (First Year) Single HEI	Psychology
Rolfe 2002	UK	Qualitative	Teaching and Learning	Academic Staff 4 HEIs	Various
Thomas 2002	UK	Qualitative	Social and Academic	Student (not specified) Single Site	Various
Sander, Stevenson, King and Coates 2000	UK	Quantitative	* Teaching and Learning *Assessment and Feedback	Student (First Year) Single HEI	Business Psychology Medicine
Cook and Leckey 1999	Ireland	Quantitative	* Hours of Work * Teaching Styles * Study Method * Study Practice	Student (First Year) Single HEI	Science Humanities

These studies concur that identification of these expectations is a valuable source of information to HE institutions as this enables expectations to be realistically managed. Sander *et al.* (2000) were particularly interested in whether students' expectations could be easily collected. Their method of choice was a questionnaire which was analysed statistically. Their work led to the adoption of surveys by many other researchers, both within the UK and in Australia. As a result much of the data on student expectations lacks 'richness' and a detailed insight into where these differences in expectations have come from and their potentially damaging effects. This has been addressed in some of the transitional literature (Torenbeek *et al.*, 2011) where it has been found that teaching in secondary education does have a long term effect on student achievement but again the research has taken a quantitative approach and has focused on the *approach* to teaching as opposed to *relationships* within teaching. Briggs *et al.* (2012) in their work on transition conclude that an important message throughout their research is that students "want to be treated as individuals, not as an item in a vast system" (p. 16). This provides a strong argument for research into the expectations of interpersonal pedagogic relationships within HE which could provide 'the human touch' to students embarking upon their degree and a phenomenological approach.

Sander *et al.*'s (2000) research recognised the importance of good teaching and students identified five qualities of a good teacher – approachability, teaching skills, enthusiasm, knowledge and organisation. Following on from this, Voss *et al.*'s (2007) research indicated that students believe lecturers should be knowledgeable, enthusiastic, approachable and friendly as well as having sufficient teaching and communication skills to engage. Kandiko and Mawer's (2013) research found that students had expectations in mind for adequate minimum benchmarks for teaching staff and that the importance of these staff relationships to some students was arguably more important than the actual content of the programme itself. Abrantes, Seabra & Lages (2006) found that the personal qualities and teaching characteristics of academic staff (*i.e.* responsiveness, likeability/concern) strongly influenced a student's perceived learning. This provides grounds for the notion that students have specific expectations of their academic staff and that if these expectations are met then an improved relationship will exist.

Research on expectations towards support and guidance suggests that many students *know* that there will be a difference between past educational experience and that at university, with an increased emphasis on independent learning (Brinkworth *et al.*, 2008; Byrne & Flood, 2005; Crisp *et al.*, 2009; Leese, 2010; Kandiko & Mawer, 2013). However they do not really

expect there to be a difference *i.e.* they expect more guidance on how to learn independently and are surprised at its level. As one participant in Beaumont, O'Doherty & Shannon's (2011) research stated "I know it's uni so we can't be spoonfed but at least give us a spoon." This is contradicted in Lane's research (2010) where students did not want additional direction on how to study more independently although they knew this was required of them, suggesting the desired expectation of being given more information in a formal taught fashion. This study will reveal whether such divergence might impact upon the pedagogic relationship.

Recent research by Bates and Kaye (2014) within the UK explored the expectations and perceptions of psychology students towards HE with a specific focus of the impact made upon these expectations by the introduction of the new fees regime in 2012. Their findings suggest that the fee rise has not had a significant impact on student expectations but that students are placing greater emphasis on graduate employability. This research will further add to this debate.

2.3.4 Research Regarding Academic Staff' Expectations of Students

With the exception of Rolfe (2002), very little research has been conducted in this area apart from those studies which have asked academics to discuss/comment upon their findings from research conducted primarily on student expectations (Crisp *et al.*, 2009; Brinkworth *et al.*, 2008). Rolfe (2002) found that academics from a variety of different types of universities had seen a change in students' expectations, with students approaching their university education in an instrumental manner. Academics were disappointed that students appeared uninterested in their chosen degree programme and required more guidance and instruction than students had required in the past. The research identified a number of potential reasons as to why students' attitudes and expectations had changed including changes in fees and other financial support, changes in the style of teaching and learning typically used within schools and FE colleges, a student focus on grades and the widening participation agenda.

Barandiaran-Galdos *et al.* (2012) surveyed lecturers in Spain to ascertain their perceptions of what constitutes quality in Spanish university education and found that they gave significant priority to their knowledge and their ability to convey it. This in part contradicts research

which has shown that the priorities of students concern the relational aspects between lecturers and students as opposed to the academic skills and training of academic staff (Voss & Gruber, 2006; Hill, Lomas & McGregor, 2003). This misalignment of priorities within the relationship could imply unrealistic expectations from the parties involved.

Taylor and Bedford's (2004) study in Australia primarily focused on staff perceptions of factors related to non-completion in HE, however it did indicate that many staff perceived that certain expectations of 'student - teaching staff interaction factors' did impact upon the student experience; these included the extent to which lecturers were supposed to assist students with study problems and to provide students with appropriate assessment and feedback. They concluded that this mismatch between student and academic expectations was an important feature towards non-completion. This also perhaps suggests that staff are aware of a disconnect in expectations but that no action has been taken to reduce its consequences.

This study will contribute to this gap in our knowledge and understanding of academic staff' expectations of students by exploring academics' expectations and their perceptions of students' expectations regarding the pedagogic relationship, whether there is a difference in their expectations and if so whether this affects student experience (RO4 and RO5).

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the importance of effective relationships within education alongside a discussion on the changing role, perceptions and motivations of what it is to be an undergraduate student in a changing educational landscape of higher tuition fees and a fall in graduate employment opportunities. It was noted that the analogy of 'student-as-consumer' was not particularly beneficial within the terms of the pedagogical relationship and that there were other terms of reference which perhaps were more appropriate. The impact of the changes in context was also deliberated on the role of the academic and how they influenced the institutional habitus within HE.

Literature on expectations from the fields of social sciences, education, organisational behaviour and marketing has been synthesised and a definition of student expectations has been generated from this, taking into consideration how expectations are formed and specific research into students' and academics' expectations of their relationship:

Student expectations of the pedagogical relationship refer to beliefs about the reciprocal obligations of teachers and learners in HE based on their previous experience from other educational situations and also from their experiences during the socialisation process at university.

Finally the literature on expectations has been examined which has indicated where this study can make a contribution. It has highlighted potential gaps; namely a lack of research into the expectations of pedagogic relationships (RO1) and how these expectations have been formed (RO2) and a lack of research into the expectations of academic staff and the impact that this may have on student experience (RO4 & 5). This study will provide additional insights into the expectations of students new to university study, arriving at a large department in a post-'92 university and compare these to the expectations of academic staff. In doing so it will highlight areas in which student expectations may not align with those of academic staff. It will explore these issues through the voices of those directly involved in the relationship and will reflect on the data to conceptualise possible changes in teaching practice to incorporate an improved exchange between students and academic staff.

The next chapter will present and discuss the PC as a framework through which to address the research objectives.

CHAPTER 3

Literature Review – Psychological Contract

3.1 Introduction

Thus far Chapter 2 focussed on the changing expectations of students and academic staff within HE and the need to take into consideration the context in which these changes in expectations are taking place. This research however needs to address specifically how these changing expectations may influence the experience of the pedagogic relationship within business HE. This chapter of the Literature Review will study the potential of the PC as a framework for not only exploring and evaluating the state of this relationship but also to see whether this could inform improvements. Its aim is to critically review existing literature around the psychological contract to evaluate its potential for understanding pedagogic relationships.

A brief history and development of the PC concept will include a discussion of what constitutes a PC, its content and the importance of a balanced exchange. This acknowledges a lack of clarity as to the parties in the exchange relationship. The dynamic and evolving nature of the contract will be discussed and the impact of breach of the contract and its consequences will be deliberated.

Since the focus of this study is on relationships within HE, a review of the PC literature pertaining to this area will be undertaken highlighting gaps within our current understanding and potential for its use within HE to which this study could contribute. How PCs are created and develop will be discussed and a model will be presented detailing the first year undergraduate pedagogic psychological process.

Finally a justification of the use of the PC model as opposed to others to explore how expectations may influence the experience of the pedagogic relationship will also be provided.

3.2 Psychological Contracts

3.2.1 History and Development

This review includes a brief history of the PC concept which is important as many argue that there is a certain amount of conceptual confusion surrounding PCs within the literature and that this can be attributed to its origins (Conway & Briner, 2009). PC has its groundings in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964); the essence of which is that “social exchange comprises actions contingent on the rewarding reactions of others, which over time provide for mutually and rewarding transactions and relationships” (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 890). The norm of reciprocity is thus central to social exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960), requiring individuals to respond positively to favourable behaviour received from others (Blau, 1964). Unlike economic exchange, social exchange “involves unspecified obligations, the fulfilment of which depends on trust because it cannot be enforced in the absence of a binding contract” (Blau, 1964, p. 113). A criticism of this exchange model is its absolute focus on the inducements provided in the relationship at one moment in time, ignoring the potential anticipated expectations that an individual may have for future organisational outcomes which have an impact upon future relationships (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Gould, 1979). The concept of reciprocation within the PC literature is defined as the “process of fulfilling mutual expectations and satisfying mutual needs in the relationship between a man and his organization” (Levinson, 1965, p. 384). PCs work on the principle that employees psychologically construct the terms of their contract and that these contracts are idiosyncratic in nature i.e. the two parties to the contract do not necessarily share the same perceived obligations (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003) and they acknowledge the impact of both present and future promises and obligations on the exchange relationship. Academics have suggested that these perceived obligations are often of more importance to work-related attitudes and behaviours than formal and explicit contracts (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998).

Definitions of the PC abound in the academic literature leading to what some would suggest “a conceptual muddle” (Guest, 1998, p.651). Two major periods are usually considered in the development of the concept (Conway & Briner, 2005). The first is the early history of the PC where both Argyris (1960) and Levinson *et al.* (1962) have been given credit for introducing the term (Roehling, 1997). Levinson *et al.* (1962) defined the PC as “a series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be even dimly aware

but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other” (p. 21). Expectations are seen to be largely unspoken, implicit and often conceived prior to or outside of the current employment relationship.

Their work was followed by Schein (1965) and Kotter (1973) whose definitions emphasised mutual beliefs and expectations, placing further emphasis on understanding the relationship from both the employee’s and the employer’s perspective: “An implicit contract between an individual and his organization which specifies what each expect to give and receive from the other in the relationship” (Kotter, 1973, p. 92). Schein’s central hypothesis regarding the PC is that the extent to which individuals work effectively, show commitment, loyalty and enthusiasm for their work is largely determined by the extent to which expectations around the equity and content of the employment exchange have been realised. The relationship is therefore interactive and fluid and the PC itself is established and re-established through mutual influence and mutual bargaining (Schein, 1980). These earlier conceptualisations tend to emphasise beliefs about expectations and the need to understand the relationship from the perspective of both parties; highlighting that an understanding of both parties’ perspective of the PC is essential if the explanatory potential of the concept is to be realised (Nadin & Williams, 2012).

Rousseau’s (1989) seminal reconceptualization of the PC marked a significant shift in our understanding of the concept. She refers to it as “an individual’s beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between the focal person and another party. Key issues here include the belief that a promise has been made and a consideration offered in exchange for it binding the parties to some set of reciprocal obligations” (p. 123). The emphasis was placed by Rousseau on the promissory nature of PCs and the obligations which arose from these promises. This differs from the earlier works which emphasised expectations and the importance of the mutual relationship. She also emphasised the fact that the PC exists at an individual level and as such exists in the “eye of the beholder” (Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993, p. 18) and that with different belief systems will come different perceptions, aligning with the central phenomenological insight around the social construction of meaning.

Since Rousseau, many studies on the PC have tended to maintain the promissory focus (*e.g.* Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993 and Morrison & Robinson, 1997) as promises are seen as more “clearly contractual” (Conway & Briner, 2005, p. 23) than expectations and obligations

which can be interpreted in a general way. However Rousseau (2010) has since further defined the PC as “an individual’s system of beliefs, based on commitments expressed or implied regarding the exchange agreement with another” (p. 191) – excluding the terms ‘promises’, ‘expectations’ and ‘obligations’ altogether. Within this study it is posited that ‘expectations’ is an appropriate and relevant term to use. This is supported by McInnis’ (2012) recent research which revealed that 33% of employees used the term ‘expectations’ when describing their PCs with only 5% using ‘promises’ and none using ‘obligations,’ intimating that ‘expectations’ is an appropriate term. Furthermore, Roehling (2008) also found in his research that no meaningful differences were present between conceptualising PCs as expectations, obligations or promises and that each measure brought about the same general mental framework in the minds of the participants and that an unfulfilled measure brought about more or less the same type of negative reaction.

Students’ and academic staff’ expectations may not all necessarily involve a promissory element, although in some cases they may, but an expectation about what will happen, when it will happen and why it will happen can still necessitate the need for a reciprocal exchange from an individual’s perspective. Expectations have to come from somewhere; we expect something because it has happened in the past or we have been told it will happen, this then takes on a promissory element and forms a part of the mental personal deal, shaping an individual’s perceptions and experience of the relationship. For example within the pedagogic relationship staff may expect students to have an interest in the subject matter for the module they deliver as the student has freely chosen to study a business programme and therefore will expect a certain level of engagement in discussions within seminars. When this does not occur they may feel that their PC has been breached as the student, in the academic’s eyes, was obligated to engage.

3.2.2 Contents of the Psychological Contract

The contents of a PC have been defined as an employee’s “expectations of what the employee *feels* she or he owes and is owed in turn by the organisation” (Rousseau, 1990, p.393). They are not necessarily what the employees actually give and get from their employer but the implicit and explicit promises around the exchange relationship. It is, in effect, a mental model of ‘give and take’ between two parties in a relationship, based on

perceptions of a reciprocal arrangement which individuals have with each other. Unlike a formal employment contract which sets out explicit terms and conditions, the PC is “cognitive - perceptual” in nature (O’Donohue, Donohue & Grimmer, 2007, p. 302).

A PC term may be perceived as explicit if it has been communicated to the other party from official verbal conversations or emails or within a formal contract; it may be perceived as an implicit term if it has been communicated through their co-workers or from signals from the organisation’s website or other promotional material (McInnis, 2012). It is important to note that the parties involved may not be aware of the content of the other’s PC (Bordia *et al.* 2010). Potentially, the range of items that could make up the contents of a PC could be wide as it could contain everything and anything that the employee promises to give and anything promised in return by the organisation (Conway & Briner, 2005). It has been noted that PCs tend to be more explicit at the beginning of an employment relationship when both parties lack information and become more implicit as the relationship develops (Conway & Briner, 2005; Rousseau, 2001).

Within the literature the PC was traditionally viewed as an interpretive framework that consisted of two basic contract types - transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1995). Transactional contracts can be seen as short term with a purely economic or materialistic focus. They are characterised by the notion of “a fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 91) and employees will contribute sufficiently to receive the economic rewards provided by the organisation. As such transactional contract breach is relatively easy to identify *i.e.* the parties clearly did not meet the other parties’ expectations or obligations with regards to economic inducements. In contrast, relational contracts tend to be more long term and broad and include terms for loyalty in exchange for security or growth (Raja, Johns & Ntalianis, 2004). They are socio-emotional in nature, depending highly upon trust and reciprocity (Herriot, Manning & Kidd, 1997). Contracts within organisations will weave these elements depending on an individual’s perceptions with some arrangements being almost fully transactional and others highly relational in content. However, it has been suggested that PCs could also be based upon “ideological rewards” (Blau, 1964, p. 239) *i.e.* commitments to certain beliefs and values within a societal context. Burr and Thomson (2002, p. 4) refer to this as an emergence of a PC which has a transpersonal component. Thompson and Bunderson (2003) propose the concept of an ideology-infused PC where three currencies of exchange are recognised – ideology, economic and socio emotional – with ideology providing a further alternative inducement upon which the relationship may be

based. O'Donohue *et al.* (2007) suggest that this third component is more likely to be prevalent in specific occupational ideologies, particularly those that characterise professions due to the shared values that reflect certain attributes that some professions are likely to hold and the desire to defend professional autonomy and standards. These exchanges are fundamentally relational emphasising loyalty, expression of identity and altruism rather than self-interested behaviour (Conway & Briner, 2005). Ideological considerations may possibly underpin the pedagogic relationship as both parties may feel that the other have ideological obligations to fulfil. In HE the PC between students and academic staff may involve elements arising from a sense of commitment to their 'profession' *i.e.* as a student in a professional discipline or an academic which may impact upon their experience of the relationship and act as an important contextual factor in moulding their PC (O'Donohue *et al.*, 2007).

A feature-based approach is a more recent way in which to view the PC. Instead of trying to identify and measure what is being exchanged this approach describes the nature of the contract generally using adjectives (*e.g.* static/dynamic, explicit/implicit; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). This process does not need the contents of the PC to be categorised into types such as transactional/relational and describes the relationship in a more general way. Assessing general features of the student/academic PC is perhaps more useful as it could be used in comparative students with other faculties across or within the university (Freese & Schalk, 2008; Rousseau, 2010).

3.2.3 Balance

The pedagogic relationship may also be explored through further consideration of the obligations individuals owe to one another through social exchange and as such this study proposes to examine the general pattern of this exchange in terms of balance and level of expectations and obligations. A relationship that is balanced is one where both parties perceive themselves to be similarly obligated in their exchange, whereas an unbalanced one is where either of the parties perceives themselves to be significantly more obligated than the other within the exchange (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Social exchange literature maintains that people seek balance in exchange relationships and that absence of balance in the fulfilment of expected obligations may lead to negative consequences (Blau, 1964). Shore and Barksdale (1998) developed a two by two typology of exchange relationships which

suggested that it was the extent of balance or imbalance between the employer and employee that mattered more than the specific content of a contract.

Figure 3.1 Pedagogic Exchange Relationship

		ACADEMIC OBLIGATIONS	
		High	Moderate to Low
STUDENT OBLIGATIONS	High	Mutual High Obligations	Student Over-Obligation
	Moderate to Low	Student Under-Obligation	Mutual Low Obligations

Adapted from Shore and Barksdale (1998) Exchange Relationship

This typology has been adapted for the pedagogic relationship (see Figure 5) where it may be useful to explore whether student and academic responses can be predicted from their typology. Mutual high obligations will exist where there is a strong social exchange between academic and student, where both parties perceive that they owe each other a great deal. For example the student may feel obligated to prepare themselves fully so that they can engage in seminar sessions in the expectation that the academic will also be prepared and supportive as they are highly obligated to the student. This will result in a relationship with PC fulfilment. In the case of mutual low obligations the exchange relationship is balanced but weak. The student with a mutual low obligation exchange perceives that with minimum effort they can continue with the pedagogic relationship and in return can only expect a limited amount of effort from the academic. This suggests a relationship characterised by breach by both parties and is similar to that described by Pratchett (1994) in Chapter 1. Unbalanced exchange relationships can also be seen to exist – student under obligation (where the student may perceive that they owe the academic relatively little but that the academic owes them a lot) and student over obligation (where the student may perceive that they owe the academic a lot but that the academic does not owe them so much). Both of these typologies suggest that breach has occurred within the relationship. Shore and Barksdale (1998) argue that where balance does not exist because of the reciprocity norm in social exchange relationships parties will seek balance through adjusting their behaviour or contribution within the

relationship. This is supported by Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau's (1994) longitudinal study of PCs in the workplace where it was shown that the mutual employee-employer obligations perceived by new employees change significantly over a period of time resulting in a re-evaluation of their own obligations and commitments. This doctoral study also takes a longitudinal approach and may further lend credence to the notion that perceptions of obligations and expectations are influenced by the actual student experience and that academics and students are likely to seek a re-balance in the exchange relationship over time.

3.2.4 Parties to the Contract

An interesting issue concerning the PC is who constitutes the parties to the contract. PCs are built on information from several sources that can act as contract makers and shape the nature of the PCs (Rousseau, 1995). From the organisation's perspective, they have a contract with an individual employee and to whom they have certain expectations and obligations, but who is 'the organisation, with whom does the employee perceive they have a deal? Cullinane and Dundon (2006) suggested that this has led to a belief for some that "organizations are deemed to be something of an anthropomorphic identity for employees, with employers holding no PC of their own" (p. 116). Rousseau (1995) acknowledges this problem and states that organisations become party to PCs as principals (individuals or organisations making contracts for themselves) who directly express their own terms or through agents representing them. A further dimension is that organisations can have both primary contract makers (people) and secondary contract makers (structural signals) to the PC. In the case of the pedagogic PC the organisation can be seen as the university and its agents are those who convey commitments in the name of their organisation. This research focuses on academic staff as being the main university agent – as indicated by Koskina (2011) in her research on postgraduate students and the PC where "the student-teacher relationship was seen to play the most important role in the operation of the psychological contract" (p. 9). However other contract makers can be identified, such as open day representatives, recruitment and marketing staff, whom may also influence the expectations and perceptions of students and thus impact upon their PC (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011). This may be of particular relevance to the context as the recent increase in competition for students may have led to a selling

approach to potential students and the more selling is done, the more likely it is that expectations are not met (Rousseau, 1995).

Structural signals are procedures or processes that express future organisational intention *e.g.* handbooks, publicity material, *etc.* These can be seen as secondary contract makers as they communicate commitments and suggest inducements for present and future behaviour. A typical university student will receive prospectuses and publicity material prior to their arrival and have access to the university's website; once enrolled they will receive a copy of the student charter and student handbooks which may also form expectations of present and future intent. The wide array of possible contract makers can make it difficult to determine for both students and agents the 'real' contract.

Since the PC is 'in the eye of the beholder' the student may perceive the academic member of staff as the 'organisation' and expect the mutual relationship to be directed at this agent. Given the range of those creating expectations and making promises, as identified previously, it would not be surprising to see that unmet expectations will therefore exist and have a negative impact upon the pedagogic relationship. The question is the extent to which this impacts upon the first year student experience.

3.2.5 Breach and Violation

Psychological contract breach (hereafter PCB) occurs "when one party in a relationship perceives another to have failed to fulfil promised obligation(s)" (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, p. 247). Breach, like the concept of the psychological concept itself, is a subjective cognitive evaluation in so far as some individuals will experience an *actual* breach, or reneging, when explicit promises are not met whereas a *perceived* breach, or incongruence, can occur when things that individuals perceived were part of the deal (*i.e.* implicit) are not fulfilled (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Within the pedagogic relationship an example of an actual PCB could be when a student has a seminar scheduled on their timetable which their tutor is obliged to facilitate. If the tutor does not arrive or is late then this is a breach. A perceived breach would involve an action which the student assumed was part of the deal and subsequently was not fulfilled, such as preparing work for a seminar in the expectation that it would be reviewed in the session and it is not.

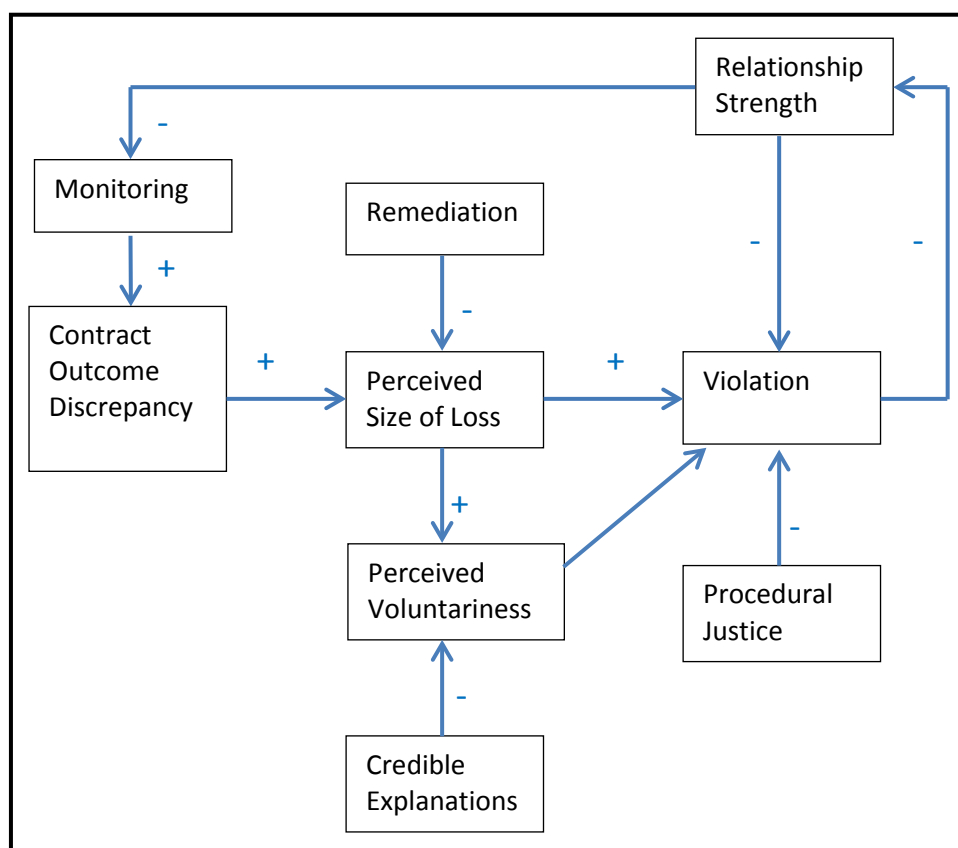
Some researchers have found that breach and its subsequent violation is commonplace (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994) although this has been challenged by others who indicate that this is not the case (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood & Bolino, 2002; Turnley & Feldman, 1998). The scarcity of research which has been undertaken as to how often it occurs (Conway & Briner, 2005) is also noted. Lester *et al.* (2002) did also find however that employees are more likely than their employers to believe that the institution has broken its promises more than the other party and that when this occurred the outcome resulted in less commitment and worse job performance.

Antecedents of breach and fulfilment are those factors that are thought to cause breach or fulfilment and as such are useful to identify so that they can be prevented or encouraged. Understanding such causes may also enlighten us on other aspects of the PC (Conway & Briner, 2005). The trust that an employee has in their employer will also impact upon their recognition, interpretation and reactions to a perceived breach (Robinson 1996) and therefore can be seen as an antecedent of the PC. Greater trust by employees in their employers tends to bring about an exchange where employees feel more obligated, expect to do more and perceive themselves as having promised to do more than in those relationships where trust does not exist (Roehling, 2008). Extending this reasoning to students, if they have trust in their academics then they should be more likely to increase their efforts within the pedagogic relationship and *vice versa*.

Recent research by Rayton & Yalabik (2014) on work engagement and PCB suggested that work engagement is affected by PCB as employees who experience breach reciprocate by decreasing their work engagement. This concurs with a meta-analysis of existing research on PCs by Zhao *et al.* (2007) which also implied that breach brings about affective reactions in individuals thereby guiding their work attitudes, behaviours and job satisfaction. Within HE, Bordia *et al.* (2010) found that PCB negatively impacted upon student satisfaction and psychological well-being, although the extent of the impact was dependent upon the conscientiousness of the student, with those students high in conscientiousness showing stronger negative effects of breach on psychological well-being compared to students low in conscientiousness. It is also likely that the level of reaction for both breach and fulfilment will depend, not only on the specific component within the PC in question but also on the importance that students place upon that component (Bordia *et al.*, 2013).

Context not only shapes the expectations of the exchange within the relationship but also how individuals respond to the exchange itself. Not all instances of non-fulfilment will be seen as breach, thus violation. If PC terms are ‘in the eye of the beholder’ and subjective then so too will be breach. Rousseau (1995) proposes that violation occurs when failure to keep a commitment injures or causes damages that the contract was designed to avoid. Therefore violation may occur if, for example, an academic does not provide the support deemed necessary by the student.

Figure 3.2 A Model of Contract Violation (Rousseau, 1995, p. 118)



A model of contract violation is given by Rousseau (1995) (see Figure 3.2). Contract outcome discrepancy tends to be elevated to a violation with three factors: Monitoring, size of loss and relationship strength. Monitoring is when a person is actively comparing outcomes with his/her understanding of the contract/deal. The extent of the monitoring will affect the experience of the violation. Thus a student may willingly accept not having their work checked by an academic until they really need it and are then refused; this would indicate a significant discrepancy. Perceived size of loss – if the outcome is perceived to have

a large potential impact with severe consequences then any discrepancy if broken will be more significant. Should a student's work go unchecked they may perceive that this will impact upon their final grade for the module and hence constitute violation. However remediation may minimise the impact of the violation, for example students may not be offered an individual support meeting but they may be offered a revision tutorial where groups of students may attend - in effect a substitution. Another factor which can increase or reduce the impact of the perceived size of loss is the student's perception of whether the breach by the academic was seen to be a voluntary breach on their behalf, lacking a credible explanation, or whether the academic has communicated their mitigating circumstances to the individual. If this is the case these credible accounts that offer mitigating circumstances can reduce perceptions of unfairness and violation impact. Therefore, for example, if an academic has previously explained that they perhaps are unable to offer any student more individual support due to the size of the cohort and to ensure fairness then the perceived size of the loss is reduced in the eyes of the student. The final factor which can impact upon the magnitude of breach and the experience of the violation is the strength and history of the relationship between the parties. Problematic relationships can deteriorate as trust is eroded whereas good relationships tend to allow for high tolerance of the behaviour of others. Again, where a student has had a strong relationship with the academic and the 'discrepancy' is deemed a 'one-off' then the potential violation may not occur. In the same way the breach will be perceived to be more serious and produce more adverse reactions when others have been or are treated differently – in other words procedural justice can impact also upon the affects and size of the violation. There is therefore an argument which advocates that parties within a relationship should be consistent in their approach (Rousseau, 1995).

As mentioned previously the consequences of perceived contract breach can be very damaging to the relationship (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2007). Types of responses to a breach of a contract can depend upon personal dispositions and situational factors (Rousseau, 1995) as well as personality types which have been shown to “predict perceptions of contract breach and moderate the relationship between those perceptions and feelings of contract violation” (Raja *et al.*, 2004, p. 350). Rousseau (1995) has identified four courses of action reflecting two essential dimensions as seen in Figure 3.2: Active-passive and constructive-destructive. These courses of action are based upon previous research on responses to the phenomena of dissatisfaction on firms, organisations and states by

Hirschman (1970) – exit, voice and loyalty; and research into workers’ responses to job dissatisfaction by Farrell (1983) – exit, voice, loyalty and neglect.

Figure 3.3 Responses to Violation (Rousseau, 1995, p. 135)

	Constructive	Destructive
Active	Voice	Neglect/Destruction
Passive	Loyalty/Silence	Exit

An active constructive individual will give voice to the person who feels aggrieved and they will focus on reducing personal loss and restoring trust. This can be illustrated by those students who provide feedback to their academics. Silence is the response by a passive constructive often used in the perception that there is no alternative and this will perpetuate the existing relationship – when students ‘just get on with it.’ An active destructive personality type will take action which involves some neglect of their duties in the hope that it will impact upon the other party – non-attendance at a lecture or seminar. Exit occurs from a passive-destructive where the individual will leave the relationship and organisation and is most common in those individuals who have been at the institution for less than two years (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

This discussion on breach and violation demonstrates that, in order for us to understand how events are experienced, we need to take into account the perspectives and behaviours of both parties, as this will impact upon how the breach is perceived. It is thus important to ascertain the experiences of both academics and students within the pedagogic relationship. The preceding sections have leaned towards literature with a focus on the employment relationship; the next section will look at contemporary psychological literature using education as its context focus.

3.3 Psychological Contract within Education

The PC was originally employed to explain relationships at work between employers and employees. Subsequently it has been argued that the concept can be used with a variety of different relationships (Roehling, 1997) and in a number of discipline areas such as organisational psychology, sociology, industrial relations and HE (Koskina, 2011). In recent years interest in the PC as a framework to understand and manage relationships in the education sector has been growing, although it should be noted that there is a paucity of PC research dealing with students *qua* students (Bordia *et al.*, 2010; Koskina, 2011; Nicholson *et al.*, 2013; O'Toole & Prince, 2014; Pietersen 2014; Wade-Benzoni *et al.*, 2006). Table 3.1 provides a summary of previous research conducted on student PC within HE.

O'Toole & Prince's Australian study (2014) revealed that UG science students were more than passive consumers. They actively participate in a social exchange and have complex conceptions of their relationships and their reciprocal obligations with their university and lecturers. This phenomenological study showed that students take personal responsibility for their learning and believe that they have obligations within this process but they also expect the university to be proactive in facilitating that learning. Whilst acknowledging the inability to generalise from their research findings due to the small sample size, their research strongly indicated that a student's beliefs on mutuality, promises and exchange can affect his or her perception of the university and student experience. This is consistent with the research cited in section 2.4.5 Breach and Violation in relation to conscientiousness. O'Toole & Prince also strongly suggested a need for future research in this area with perhaps a broader range of students. This study in part anticipated this need by looking at PCs within business education.

In their study, Nicholson *et al.* (2013) examined how undergraduate psychology students' expectations (and thus their perception of the PC) and their confidence predicted academic performance. It was found that, all things being equal, those students with more realistic expectations of personal responsibility for independent study performed better than those who did not, suggesting that were students more informed and aware of HE pedagogy then students' marks may improve. This doctoral study is not focusing on the relationship between student expectations and their academic achievement *per se*, however Nicholson *et al.*'s (2013) research does indicate that an understanding and sharing of student expectations with academic staff can improve student experience.

Table 3.1 Summary of Previous research conducted on Student Psychological Contract within Higher Education (Inverse Chronological Order)

Study	Student Type	Focus
Pietersen 2014	UG Senior Students Discipline not specified South Africa	The impact of negotiating a shared PC on the lecturer-student relationship.
O'Toole & Prince 2014	UG Student Science Australia	The use of PC theory to explore social relationships between a student and their university and lecturers.
Nicholson, Putwain, Connors & Hornby-Atkinson 2013	UG – Cross Section Psychology UK	Impact of student expectations of independent study within the PC and the impact of academic confidence upon academic performance.
Koskina 2011	Post Grad. Students and Academic Staff Human Resource Management UK	An exploration into the concepts and relationships that students attach to the PC.
Bordia, Hobman, Restubog & Bordia 2010	UG Final Year Students Business Management Philippines	Advisor – Student relationship in the context of thesis supervision and project collaboration. Impact of PCB upon student.
Wade-Benzoni, Rousseau & Li 2006	Doctoral Students Multi-Discipline USA	Nature and Quality of Faculty – Doctoral Student relationships. Impact of PCB.

Similarly, Pietersen (2014) identified that dialogue between academics and students concerning roles and expectations can optimise staff/student relationships; whilst Bordia *et al.*'s (2010) research indicated that breach of PC, in relation to project work, impacted negatively upon student satisfaction and psychological wellbeing and could be avoided by prior discussion between the parties to produce a shared understanding of issues that could

impact upon the relationship. Koskina's (2011) study explored how the PC was perceived by a group of Human Resource postgraduate students and found that a combination of transactional, relational and ideological expectations were present which formed the foundation of the perceived reciprocal exchange between students, academics and the university. She also highlighted the importance of the student-academic relationship and the perceived role of academics as contract makers within the PC.

There are several limitations to these studies which this research hopes to overcome. Firstly none of the studies have focused primarily on the PC of first year business undergraduates and their academic tutors within the UK; nor have they examined the process and formation of the PC to gain a deeper insight into how it may operate within HE so that more informed interventions may be put in place to improve psychological contracting and the pedagogic relationship. This study has as its focus the first year undergraduate and has developed a framework to explore the process and formation of the undergraduate pedagogic PC (see figure 3.5). A further contribution that this study makes is towards identification and an understanding of the origins of students' and staff perceptions of the PC which can help address any future potential misconceptions.

From the PC within HE literature, three definitions of the student PC can be identified (see Figure 3.4). All three definitions highlight that students develop a mental framework comprised of the expectations and obligations that they want the academic staff and the institution to fulfil. It is these expectations and perceptions that create a PC between the students and their educational provider (often the academic staff). It is posited that the fulfilment of these perceived obligations/expectations/promises may affect their well-being, educational attainment, motivation to learn and overall satisfaction.

Figure 3.4 Definitions of Student Psychological Contract

“A student psychological contract is perceived by the student, is subjective and consists of learning, career and socio – emotional aspects of the student-institution relationship” (Bordia *et al.* 2013, p. 3).

“The student psychological contract refers to individual or group subjective understandings of the reciprocal exchanges between students, their teachers and their learning institution. It is made up of promissory (transactional) and non-promissory (relational and ideological) expectations that are not written in any formal agreement; yet, they may operate powerfully as determinants of attitude and behaviour, and potentially attrition and performance” (Koskina, 2011, p. 15).

“The psychological contract refers to the tacitly held agreement between a *student* and the *institution* about the nature of their exchange and relationship in the process of education” (Nicholson *et al.*, 2013, p. 286).

As mentioned previously, prior research into PCs and in particular PC violation has focused upon employees’ experiences - this is similar to the research undertaken in education where the focus has been upon students’ perceptions and experiences. This approach is perhaps inconsistent with early conceptualisations of the PC where the emphasis is clearly on both parties within the relationship (Argyris, 1960; Levinson *et al.*, 1962; Schein, 1980). Guest (2004b), writing about the employment relationship, identified that “a key research need is to explore the perceptions of both parties to determine the level of mutuality of perceptions of promises and obligations and their fulfilment, and the extent to which there is a shared view of the attitudinal and behavioural consequences” (p. 546). In the context of this study his argument implies the need to examine the perceptions of academic staff as key agents of the university within the pedagogic relationship: How do they react when they believe that students have failed to live up to their expectations, keep their promises or meet their obligations? This seems to be an important omission from the extant literature and provides good reason to look at the expectations and perceptions of both students and academic staff in

this research if the explanatory potential of the PC is to be utilised within the context of this DBA study.

The discussion thus far has suggested that the use of the PC model as a conceptual framework to analyse and explore the contemporary pedagogic relationship within HE could be beneficial and that it could be a useful lens through which to “examine perceptions of higher education relationships between students and universities” (O’Toole & Prince, 2014, p. 2). It may also provide a structure to explore further the processes and content of the pedagogic relationship through a focus on the reciprocal obligations students and academics may have to one another. Current research in this area, as acknowledged previously, is limited and has not focused on new students’ PC perceptions during their first few weeks and across their first year; a critical socialisation period. The organisational behaviour literature relating to newcomers’ PCs and how individuals make sense and develop their contracts may therefore be of relevance as an understanding of how contracts are formed, interpreted and subsequently developed may help improve the management of student expectations. As Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre (1984) commented “entering a classroom environment the first time is very much like the first day on a new job” (p. 21). The next section will examine the literature concerning PC creation and development.

3.4 The Creation and the Development of the Psychological Contract

Within the literature it is noted that when new employees enter an organisation many already have expectations of their role, the company itself and their working relationships which may form the basis of any future PC (Thomas & Anderson, 1998). This has been referred to as the anticipatory psychological contact (APC) (De Vos, De Stobbeleir & Meganck, 2009) which, within employment relationships, is the mental model held by potential employees about their future job and which forms the basis of the evaluations they make of the extent to which their expectations match what occurs after organisational entry. Pre-entry expectations can be based on previous work experience, pre-entry information about the organisation and individual emotions (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011); they take on significance when they are actualised (or not) through implicit or explicit promising within the new employment relationship thus becoming part of the new PC. Tomprou and Nikolaou (2011) identify two distinct periods for newcomers in the psychological contracting process - PC creation, that

which occurs during “newcomers’ first days at work and lasts for a few weeks” (Tomprou & Nikolau, 2011, p. 343) and PC development which takes place over a longer period of time (up to a year) and can include observations of fulfilled or breached expectations and obligations (De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2003). This doctoral study will explore a student’s PC development.

Within industry an understanding of newcomers’ pre-entry expectations is important so that they can be better managed by firms. Within HE an understanding is equally important as entry into university is itself a major transition for most students comparable to that of entering the work place. In the case of first year students pre-entry expectations may be based upon previous similar work experiences – from school or colleges; pre-entry information may have come from promotional material used by universities (prospectuses), open days, reputation and third party information *e.g.* past teachers’ or peers’ experiences. Furthermore, many of the perceived promises made to students prior to entry concerning their teaching and learning experience are often made by those who subsequently play no part in this relationship *i.e.* marketing teams and Heads of Department as opposed to teaching academic staff and as a consequence messages can become distorted and incongruent leading to unmet expectations, which in turn may lead to a damaged relationship. As such, post-entry experiences can create a ‘reality shock.’ Important influences here are the contract makers – anyone “who conveys some sort of future commitment to another person, implying that the contract maker has – at least to some degree – the power and authority to fulfil his/her obligation” (Tomprou & Nikolau, 2011, p. 351). In the case of this research this will include Programme Leaders and all academic staff. Facilitators are also an important influence upon post-entry experiences – these do not have the power and authority to make promises but do influence the ‘sense making process’ involved in the PC creation/development process and therefore influence its content *e.g.* other students. A final point to take into consideration in the PC development process involves the variability of emotions that the new student will experience during this period, as the impact of emotions should be considered inherent to psychological contracting, to date this has been perhaps a neglected area (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011).

PC researchers deem the socialisation stage as a critical point in the development of a mutually beneficial PC (De Vos & Freese, 2011; McFarlane, Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Rousseau, 2001). This period of socialisation, or “period of knowledge acquisition” (Thomas & Anderson, 1998, p. 751), is characterised by sense-making processes through which new

recruits to the organisation interpret their new environment and change their PC perceptions based on the reality they experience after entry. The depiction of sense-making as a process through which newcomers change and adapt their expectations link it with the literature of PC formation (De Vos *et al.*, 2003). Louis (1980) comments that when an individual enters a new organisation they may require adjustment and a change in their role and identity as the situation is “characterised by disorientation, foreignness and a kind of sensory overload” (p. 230). With change comes a contrast – the need to ‘let go of’ prior roles and their memories, and the use of cognitive processes to cope with surprise and novelty. Surprise is the difference between their expectations and actual experience and this may be either positive or negative. This has also been noted by educationalists who comment that some students struggle with this transformational process acknowledging that “it may prove troublesome” to certain students (Meyer & Land, 2006, p. 3).

Socialisation implies that, at entry, most individuals will have only formed a partial PC as they have limited information about the new organisation, in which case the next few weeks are important in the development of their PC schema, as expectations are adapted and shaped based upon their interpretations of their relational experiences in the new setting (Rousseau, 2001) and through vicarious learning (Millward & Hopkins, 1988). As newcomers gain more knowledge their PC develops and changes; furthermore their perceptions of employer obligations change over time (De Vos *et al.*, 2003; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Thus pre-entry expectations in these first few weeks will be met, unmet or exceeded, with met and exceeded expectations likely to be then assimilated into the newcomer’s revised PC.

Moreover if these expectations have been realised through implicit or explicit promising within this period this further suggests intentions to provide the recipient with some benefit – in other words creating perceived mutual obligations (Rousseau, 2001) and with this, trust is formed between the two parties.

Thomas and Anderson (1998) also suggest that “it seems likely that as newcomers become more knowledgeable, their PC will develop and change, at times quite fundamentally, if substantial new knowledge is gained during the socialization process” (p. 749) – there will also be incorporated a “salience dimension” (p. 750) *i.e.* certain elements of the PC will take on more importance depending on how much importance had been placed on that element as a pre-entry expectation. As part of this study, quantitative data will be collected from students prior to entering the business school on their expectations and the relative importance of these to them, this may highlight those expectations which should be given more salience.

One element of the socialisation process that has been relatively understudied is information-seeking related to the PC. To date, only a few empirical studies on the process of PC development have been published. Although some mentioned the role of newcomer information-seeking in this process, the direct relationship has not yet been studied (De Vos *et al.*, 2003; Robinson *et al.*, 1994; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). This study will address this and, through the use of a longitudinal study design will also be able to identify variations in the students' PC over time.

Figure 3.5 is presented as a model of the first year undergraduate pedagogic PC process to provide a broad analytical framework within which to explore existing relationships between academic staff and students. This begins with the formation of the PC and the importance of context. An understanding of context impacts upon the content of the exchange and also the responses to the exchange, hence there is a need for a fuller exploration of this alongside the information sources used by students in formulating their expectations as these are the foundations of the core perceived obligations from their academic staff. The research will proceed to examine readjustments of the PC where the content is developed and address the questions: How do students make sense of their pedagogic relationship? How do they develop which aspects are more important than others?

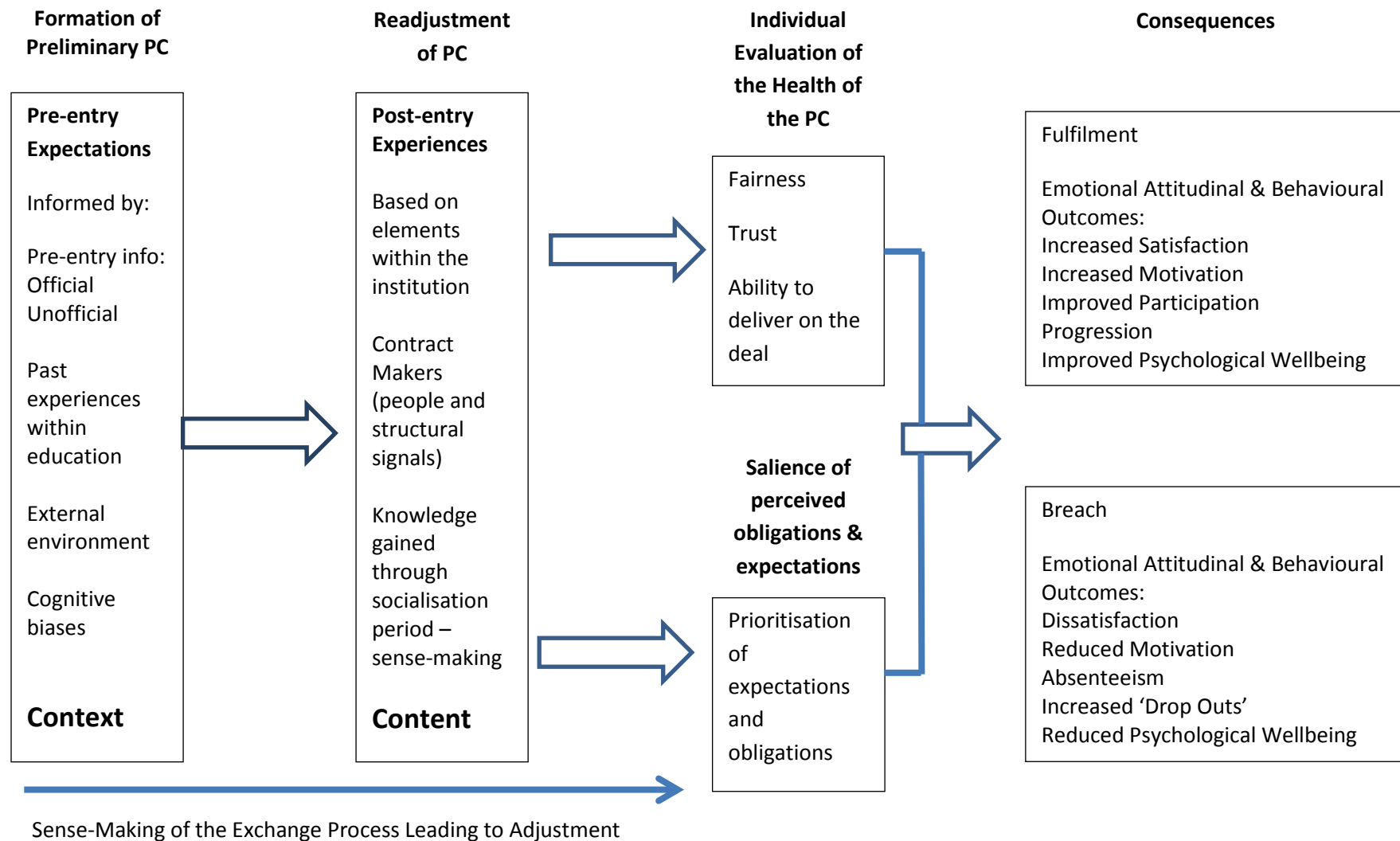
From this the salience of perceived obligations and expectations (and their relational or transactional character) will be confirmed. Consideration must also be given to the health of the PC in the eyes of the individual. A healthy PC is one where there is a fair exchange of obligations, there is mutuality and agreement concerning the terms of the deal and there is trust in the other party for these promises to be delivered now and in the future (Guest, 2004a). Trust lies at the heart of any relationship and can influence how each individual responds to the other (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002).

The final element in the model focuses on the consequences of the contract. Conway and Briner (2005) noted that, within organisations, breach and excess fulfilment of PCs occur on a daily basis. This may not be the case for HE and there is a need to further explore where breaches and over-fulfilment start to 'matter' to the extent that they affect behaviour and outcomes in a significant way and impact upon student experience.

The framework outlined in Figure 3.5 presents the student's perspective. However it can also be explored from an academic's perspective. Questions include: What are their perceptions of the deal? How do they react when they believe that students have failed to keep their

promises or to meet their obligations? How do they assess the health of the PC with their students? Is there a shared understanding by both parties about the nature of promises and obligations and the extent to which the deal has been delivered?

Figure 3.5 Framework of the First Year Undergraduate Pedagogic Psychological Contract Process



This section discussed the importance of PC creation and how pre entry expectations must be managed effectively to secure the long-term health of an individual's PC. Conway and Briner (2005) noted that “the psychological contract is an ongoing dynamic exchange process where the causes and effects of the content cannot be viewed statically” (p. 61) suggesting further a need for active PC management throughout the period of the relationship. This has informed RO3 which will explore how student expectations of the pedagogic relationship change over the first year. The next section will propose why psychological contracting theory is a suitable theoretical framework for this study.

3.5 Justification of Psychological Contract for this Study.

Can the lens of PC theory help us to understand the importance of the student-academic staff relationship? This study considers that it can.

The PC can be useful as a powerful explanatory concept (Guest, 1998, p 649) and “captures the spirit of our times” (Guest, 1998, p. 659). When Guest wrote this he was referring to changes in the labour market and the trend towards the “individualizing of the employment relationship” (Guest, 1998, p. 659). Transferring this analogy to HE, recent changes within this sector have highlighted a need for the individualising of the pedagogic relationship, and the value of the PC is that it recognises that contracts are formed from a set of individual beliefs and is a potentially useful construct with which to make sense of and explore this new student-academic relationship. Rousseau also recognised that “all behaviour is relative to the setting in which it occurs” and that therefore “context gives meaning, and when context changes, meaning can change with it” (Rousseau, 1995, p. 203). The context of HE has changed and brought about changes in meaning to roles – with these changes come variations in the personal habitus that students and academics hold about their relationship (Thomas, 2002). Therefore context not only shapes the expectations of the exchange within the relationship but also how individuals respond to the exchange itself. Thus the use of PC theory will allow a focus upon the content of the PC between the interested parties in our time and could offer a way forward for addressing the difficulties being experienced in the university sector of student engagement (Herriot, Maning & Kidd, 1997).

PC theory is not without criticism (Conway & Briner, 2005, 2009; Cullinane & Dundon, 2006; Guest, 1998; Marks, 2001; Meckler, Drake & Levinson, 2003; Millward & Brewerton, 2000; Seeck & Parzefall, 2008) with the suggestion that it is an “overused and under conceptualized concept” (Marks, 2001, p. 464) and has significant ambiguity in terms of its theoretical foundations (Guest, 1998). However the author agrees with Bordia *et al.* (2013) when she states that the PC can provide “a much needed theoretical basis for the investigation of the needs, perceived obligation of international students” (p. 15) and that this is also the case for home students. The PC framework can provide an insight into the perceptions of mutual obligations/commitments within the pedagogical relationship. This can include an understanding of how these perceptions were formed, an indication of how/whether these change during the experience, when and how these perceptions are fulfilled or breached and the consequences of this action. This provides a better understanding of students’ perceptions of academics’ commitments/obligations and also the academics’ perceptions of the student obligations. The author proposes that knowledge of student and academic staff PCs can align educational content, style of teaching, support services and general learning environment which could improve the student experience.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter set out to critically review existing literature around PCs to evaluate their potential for understanding and managing interpersonal pedagogic relationships and has shown that, although there is a significant amount of literature pertaining to PCs *per se*, there is little explicit research focusing on the use of the PC within HE relationships. This supports and justifies RO6 - to explore whether an understanding of the PC may explain the reciprocal obligations students and academics have to one another in the context of the present HE environment - within this study.

The PC concept was introduced and examined in this chapter to identify whether it can reveal perceptions/expectations of mutual obligations in pedagogical relationships, indicating where these perceptions have come from, when and how these are satisfied or broken and the outcome of the relationship (Bordia *et al.*, 2013). It has been suggested that understanding how the PC is created and its contents may help university managers to better understand student/academic relationships and address how to manage pre-entry expectations more

effectively, so that changes to the parties' expectations do not have to be made at a later date which is often more difficult.

The Literature Review has demonstrated the comparative neglect of the experience of first year undergraduates in extant PC research in HE. The need has also been highlighted for more longitudinal research to incorporate the changing nature of contracts (Bordia *et al.*, 2010; McInnis, 2012; Pietersen, 2014). A model of the first year undergraduate pedagogic PC process is presented which provides a broad analytical framework within which to explore existing relationships between academics and students. This has subsequently informed the methodology and analysis of the thesis.

The literature review in Chapter 2 and 3 has highlighted the dearth of research focused specifically on pedagogical relationships between students and their academics within the first year at university and the impact that this may have upon student experience. It has also shown that PC theory could provide a lens to help us better comprehend this relationship by understanding whether students and academics have a shared understanding of their stated expectations, obligations and promises. The research in this study hopes to investigate this further and the next chapter will detail the research methodology to be adopted.

CHAPTER 4

Research Methodology, Designs and Methods

4.1. Introduction

This chapter considers “the complex relationships [which exist] between the production of knowledge (epistemology), the processes of knowledge production (methodology), and the involvement and impact of the knowledge producer or researcher (ontology)” (Haynes, 2012, p. 73) within the context of the specific research topic. It will therefore identify the ontological, epistemological and philosophical underpinnings to the research, before proceeding to discuss the methods chosen for data collection and analysis. It will specifically seek to develop appropriate methodology and methods to identify and explore the expectations of role requirements and pedagogic relationships in Business and Management education.

The focus will be to provide a rationale for the choice of methodology and the way in which research activities are to be undertaken to ensure they are “transparent and accountable” (Crotty, 2006, p.216). The objective, therefore, is to develop a methodological approach which will allow for student and teacher/lecturer expectations of the pedagogical relationship to be identified, recorded and explored; allowing students also to reflect on these expectancies in hindsight, to assess whether their expectations have been met or not and to then examine the implications of this. An approach, therefore, is needed which will allow for the student and staff voice to be heard and interpreted. A phenomenological position is particularly suited to a study which aims to improve understanding of the experience of a particular situation (Willig, 2013).

As discussed in Chapter 2 there has been a significant amount of research undertaken into this area of student expectations of HE. However much of this research has collected quantitative data at a single point in time which has led to the call by many for a more detailed insight into these expectations (Byrne & Flood, 2005; Long & Tricker, 2004; Torenbeek, *et al.*, 2011) with a longitudinal aspect to the research (Sander *et al.*, 2000). As explained later in the chapter the author has taken a mixed methods approach which others in this field also have adopted (Crisp *et al.*, 2009; Darlaston – Jones *et al.*, 2003; Kandiko &

Mawer, 2013; Sharp, Hemmings, Kay & Callinan, 2014; Torenbeek *et al.*, 2011). The methodology also concurs with Smith and Wertlieb's (2005) argument that "A mixed method design consisting of comparative quantitative data and in-depth qualitative measures such as interviews ... would provide additional points to consider" (p. 169) and is supported from research conducted into PCs where McInnis (2012) and others (Conway & Briner, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Rousseau, 2010; Seeck & Parzefall, 2008) recommended that future researchers "consider mixed methods designs that involve studying one sample across time" (p. 130). These therefore support my strategy detailed in section 4.4.2.

In summary this chapter will present the methodology and research design which will allow for the research question to be answered:

How do expectations of the pedagogical relationship affect the first year student experience?

It will first address the impact that the knowledge producer *i.e.* the researcher, has had on the research design before a discussion is presented of the ontological and epistemological principles underpinning the research process. The chapter will then outline and justify the processes of knowledge production which have been employed throughout the enquiry.

4.2 The Knowledge Producer - The Role of the Researcher

"The personhood of the researcher, including his or her membership status in relation to those participating in the research, is an essential and ever-present aspect of [any] investigation"
(Corbin, Dwyer & Buckle, 2009, p. 55).

As mentioned in Chapter 1 the issue of my personhood within this research is most relevant and significant. The inquiry involves research into my place of work; one aspect of it involves research into the expectations of a group of which I am a member (academic staff) and the other involves research into a group where a power relationship may be said to exist (student and academic staff member). In addition my previous recent role as a high school teacher adds another dimension to my identity within the research and the fact that I have been all of these things will 'matter' to the participants and they also matter to me in my role

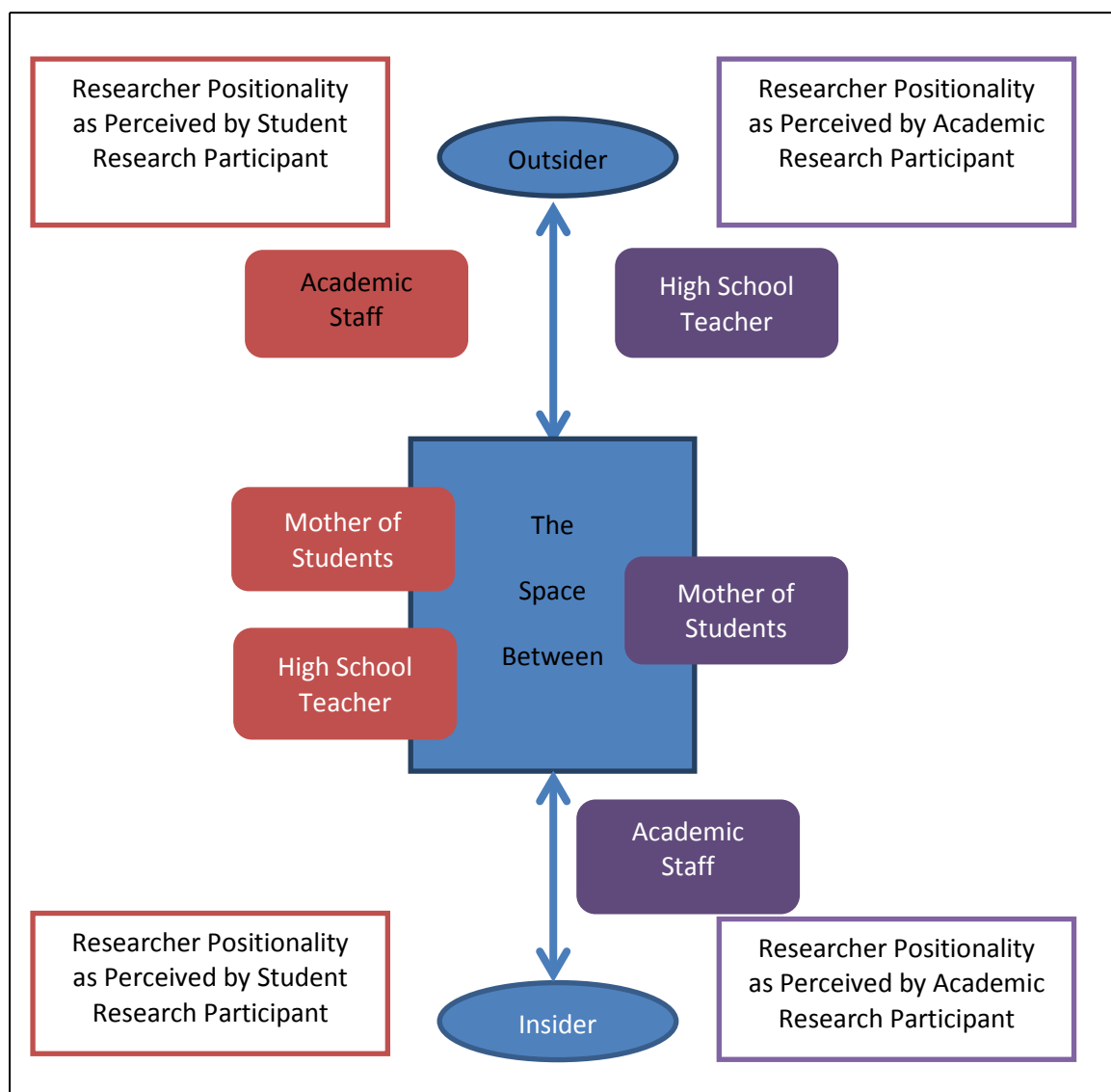
as researcher; I do appreciate the privilege of being able to conduct research on pedagogic relationships, a topic that as an experienced educational practitioner is so important to me (Corbin *et al.*, 2009). This situation could therefore be said to bring about “unique epistemological, methodological, political and ethical dilemmas” (Anderson & Jones, 2000, p. 430) which will now be discussed and addressed within the context of how it has shaped the methodology of the research.

There is much discussion about the merits and drawbacks of researchers being members of the population they are studying (Corbin *et al.*, 2009; Kanuha, 2000; Mercer, 2007; Moore 2012). An insider is “someone whose biography (gender, race, class, sexual orientation and so on) gives her [sic] a lived familiarity with the group being researched” (Griffith, 1998, p. 361). Within this research process I have the identity of an insider on occasions, sharing some of the characteristics and experiences of some of the participants (academic staff). Creswell (1998) warns that interviewers who share experiences and similarities with participants can “minimise the ‘bracketing’” that is essential to construct the meaning of participants in phenomenology and reduces information shared by informants in case studies” (p. 133). As I have chosen to take a phenomenological stance within this research (as detailed in Appendix 2) this suggests the need for a cautious approach within the qualitative research in order to keep ‘myself’ and my preconceptions ‘out of the interview’ (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003). However, academic staff participants are likely to be more willing to share their experiences as there is a notion of shared understanding and shared distinctiveness – I am a ‘member of their gang.’

Moreover, adding to the multi-layered complexity of my researcher positionality, in addition to my current role of academic lecturer and researcher, my relatively recent longstanding past career, as mentioned previously, has been that of a high school teacher. This complicates the simplistic suggestion of being an insider and as DeVault (1996) points out demonstrates that identities are “always relative, cross cut by other differences and often situational and contingent” (p. 40). My past membership of the high school teaching profession positions me as an outsider to the academic staff whilst giving me more of a familiarity with the student research participants. This is even more pronounced as one of the reasons why this research has come about is due to the anecdotal feeling of many academic staff that students’ expectations of the pedagogic relationship have become unrealistic and distorted, due to changes in recent years in the relationships that high school teachers have adopted with their

students, leading to less independent learning and a more ‘spoon fed’ approach (Clinton, 2011). In Smith and Wertlieb’s (2005) study the fact that a teacher had been a part of the research procedure was identified as both a drawback (the information gained from the participants may have been less genuine due to a “social desirability effect” (p. 168) in their responses) and an advantage (ease of access to participants and ability to interpret results). Conversely my own ‘context’ is a key distinguishing feature of this research and therefore makes a contribution to this methodology as it allows the reader some assurance that the analysis drawn from the semi-structured interviews has been understood in its proper context (Johns, 2001).

Figure 4.1 An Illustration of the Multi-layered Complexity of the Positionality of the Researcher Depending on the Role in which she is perceived by the Research Participant.



Therefore as commented by Corbin *et al.* (2009) to categorise myself as being an insider and/or an outsider is “overly simplistic” (p. 60). As a researcher I have many factors affecting my positionality and as such I need to look at research strategies and methods “for researching at the hyphen of insider – outsider” (Kanuha, 2000, p. 443). Indeed, as Merton (1972) points out “as situations involving different values arise, different statuses are activated and the lines of separation shift” (p. 28). This suggests that there is a need to ensure that within the data analysis I recognise and reflect upon my impact on the participant.

As has been intimated there are costs and benefits to be considered regarding the insider versus the outsider status of the researcher. Within my research, being an insider can raise the problem of undue influence of my perspective, however this can be mitigated by the gains which can be achieved within the research process of candour, rapport and familiarity with participants. Again though, as Armstrong (2001) noted, “my empathy and enthusiasm for a subject dear to my own heart may have kept them [*i.e.* the participants being interviewed] from considering certain aspects of their experience” (p. 243). As Hayano (1979) warned “an insider’s position is not necessarily an unchallengeable ‘true’ picture; it represents one possible perspective” (p. 102) and the assumption therefore cannot be made that as an insider one has intimate knowledge of the particular and situated experiences of all members of that group (Kanuha, 2000). Mercer (2007) points out that there is much discussion as to whether increased familiarity leads to “thicker description or greater verisimilitude” (p. 6). However with awareness and detailed reflection these issues need not arise. As Corbin *et al.* (2009) state it is not the researcher’s status which is the issue but his or her “ability to be open, authentic, honest, deeply interested in the experiences of one’s research participants, and committed to accurately and adequately representing their experience” (p. 59) which is of the essence.

This discussion has highlighted the fact that I do not consider the position of insider/outsider as an either/or duality. It is not dependent upon a single characteristic such as being a member of academic staff or an ex high school teacher, rather it is an amalgamation of many different characteristics, some inherent and some not. As Corbin *et al.* (2009) and Mercer (2007) have argued we need to conceive the positions as points on a continuum that are fluid and as such their potential strengths and weaknesses should be acknowledged but their value *per se* should not be diminished. My perspective of the insider/outsider conundrum has influenced my ontological and epistemological principles as discussed below (see section

4.3), and throughout the research process consideration has been given to the potential impacts of my identities upon participants' responses as this is an ethical issue which has been highlighted in the literature. (Further discussion concerning the ethical dilemmas presented in relation to my role in the research and within the case study organisation is given in section 4.9.)

4.3 The Production of Knowledge - Ontological and Epistemological Principles

Justification of a methodology cannot be given without recognition of the impact that ontology and epistemology has had on the assumptions informing my research choices. Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, the "science or study of being" (Blaikie, 1993, p. 6) whereas epistemology is concerned with what we accept as knowledge, "how we know what we know" (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 8). The issues surrounding an understanding of these terms often develop together and therefore when developing a research process it may be suggested that ontology should be reserved purely for "those occasions when we do need to talk about 'being'" (Crotty, 2006, p. 11) rather than throughout the design of the research. However acknowledging one's perspective on reality, particularly social reality, frames what one recognises as significant knowledge within research and thereby influences methodology. If this is accepted, it becomes important to acknowledge this framing. Therefore one's philosophical assumptions need to be related to the aims of the study and to the knowledge the researcher deems important to answer their research question. A study about individuals' expectations has to make a series of judgements about how to establish, understand and account for these differences and acknowledge the idea of multiple realities; the research needs to be grounded in people's experience of multiple realities - subjective and multiple - as understood by the participants (Creswell, 2007).

Ontological commitments can be described in a variety of ways. The researcher would broadly position herself as an interpretivist *i.e.* that social reality is subjective as it is shaped by our perception and is socially constructed (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Interpretative research is generally idiographic *i.e.* "describing aspects of the social world by offering a detailed account of specific social settings, processes or relationships" (King & Horricks, 2010, p. 11) and a relativist ontology maintains that our understandings and experiences are relative to our specific cultural and social frame of reference. This ontological stance implies the adoption of a particular epistemological position. This contrasts with a positivist and realist ontology with

a view that the real world exists independently from us and the task of research is to capture, study and understand this independent reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). This latter view has supported much natural science research and tends to be associated with quantitative, experimental methods within social science research. These ontological paradigms can perhaps be seen as opposing extreme stances along a spectrum. There are other ontological variations that exist between these poles. A post positivist paradigm has, for many social science researchers, superseded positivism. Here a real world is still presumed but our knowledge of it is critical and sceptical and as a consequence never complete and only an approximation (Langridge, 2007). Such a paradigm is considered less appropriate for this study whereas a phenomenological paradigm with an epistemological focus on experience or narrative and the methods for capturing this are more applicable to this study.

With regards to epistemology the researcher's understanding of knowledge is that, "meaning is not discovered, but constructed" (Crotty, 2006, p. 9) and therefore positions the researcher as an advocate of constructionism, and with this comes a "basic set of beliefs that guides action" (Guba, 1990, p.17) - a paradigm. This constructionist paradigm itself suggests further a theoretical perspective and a set of methodological procedures which are appropriate to such a paradigm, thus ensuring what Marshall & Rossman (2006) term as "epistemological integrity." Social constructionism holds "the view that all knowledge and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 2006, p. 42). Furthermore, context – in historical, cultural and social terms – is integral to understanding how people experience and understand their lives (King & Brooks, 2016). Within this study this suggests that the knowledge obtained will be conditional and subject-specific. Phenomenology is my choice of theoretical perspective as the research will be focusing on students' and lecturers' perceptions and expectations of their relationships and, more importantly from a phenomenological perspective, their perceptions of the 'things in their appearing' and putting their lived experiences centre stage. Implicit in the notion of 'expectations' is that they are something that informs a person's experience and guides them in their evaluation of that experience; meaning comes into existence out of their engagement with others and in the process of social exchange.

An introduction to phenomenology and its implications for research strategy is provided at Appendix 2.

4.4 Processes of Knowledge Production - Methodology Design Principles

4.4.1 Case Study Research Design.

“Case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied” (Stake, 2008, p. 119).

Chapter 1 considered the potential significance of the context in which this research takes place, for that reason it was important to choose a design strategy that would allow for “concrete, context-dependent knowledge” (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 224) to be generated within a phenomenological approach to human learning. Case study research can allow for this as its aim is “to provide an analysis of the context and processes which illuminate the theoretical issues being studied” (Hartley, 2006, p. 321). The emphasis in this research is not to separate the context (business HE programmes charging yearly individual tuition fees of £8750) from the topic of investigation (expectations of the pedagogic relationship) but rather to explore further the interactions of this phenomenon and context. Sturman (1999) also indicates that case studies can provide a wholeness or integrity rather than being a loose association of characteristics to explore within a given context and Cousin (2005) acknowledges that they are concerned with description, exploration and understanding of issues, allowing an appreciation of the connection between qualitative and quantitative data.

The choice of a single case study was informed by the author’s constructionist epistemology, by the anticipation of the “opportunity to learn” (Stake, 2008, p. 130) and to explore the phenomenon in depth. Within constructionism the design of the research strategy must allow for meaning to be constructed “and provide a rich picture of life and behaviour in organisations and groups” (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012, p. 55). This can be done via a case study. Also, if one makes the assumption that one goal of a researcher is to learn about and understand the phenomenon being studied, then one should choose a method of design from which one feels one can learn the most and, as Flyvbjerg states (2006, p. 239), “the most advanced form of understanding is achieved when researchers place themselves within the context being studied. Only in this way can researchers understand the viewpoints and behaviour, which characterizes social actors.”

A case study can be distinguished by its size, its intent and its theoretical orientation. Stake (2008) distinguishes between three types of case studies –intrinsic, instrumental and

collective. With the latter, a number of cases may be studied together in order to investigate a phenomenon but this was not a feasible or warranted option for this research. An intrinsic case study is one where the case is selected specifically because of its particular features which may or may not be generalisable to other contexts, but is of intrinsic value itself (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012). An instrumental case is where the researcher focuses on a particular issue and selects a bounded case to illustrate this issue in order to gain a greater understanding of the phenomenon. This case study could be seen as both instrumental and intrinsic in the respect that there is an instrumental element due to my interest in understanding the phenomenon of business student expectations of the pedagogical relationship and also as intrinsic since the business school in which I work has 830 business students on its L4 undergraduate programmes, making it one of the largest UK business schools in terms of its undergraduate provision. Other typologies of case selection are offered to help justify the choice of case selection. Flyvbjerg (2006) identifies four types of information oriented selection case studies where cases are selected on the basis of expectations about their information content – extreme/deviant cases, maximum variation cases, critical cases and paradigmatic cases. This case has been selected as it is interesting in a paradigmatic context and the past experience of the researcher suggests that this case can provide a wealth of knowledge and understanding of undergraduate business students' expectations of the pedagogical relationship.

There are a series of benefits and challenges associated with case study research which will now be addressed in the context of this research. One charge made against the use of case study research is “how can a single case be representative so that it may yield findings that can be applied more generally to other cases?” (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 61). In other words, how can we develop general propositions and theories on the basis of one specific case study? The answer is that it cannot, but this may be a criticism which could be cited of many qualitative techniques; indeed as Flyvbjerg (2006) suggests within social science “there does not and probably cannot exist predictive theory” (p. 6), a view supported by Campbell (1975), Eysenck (2013) and Ragin and Becker (1992) and that actual, context dependent knowledge is more beneficial than the quest for predictive theories. Case study research is especially well suited to produce this knowledge. This study will also concentrate on the specifics of this case and develop a full and detailed understanding of its particular issues and therefore, as Lee, Collier & Cullen (2007) suggest, the main strengths of this research design will be particularisation rather than generalisation, to generate local knowledge which fits

also with the objectives of a professional doctorate where it is also important that the research makes an original contribution to knowledge and professional practice. There is also the argument that “formal generalization is overvalued whereas the ‘force of example’ is underestimated” (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 231) suggesting that a phenomenological case study can be of value in the process of knowledge accumulation within a given field. This research will produce in-depth knowledge and understanding of student and staff expectations and by focusing on the uniqueness of the case and developing a detailed understanding of its complexities the outcomes may then be extrapolated to other instances.

Stake (2008) also suggests that case studies can be useful in those situations where there is a desire to “modify existing theoretical notions” (Koskina, 2011, p. 6). As this study attempts to adapt the PC theoretical framework, primarily used to explain working relationships between employers and employees to that of relationships within the university education context, a case study design would further seem to be appropriate as it can explore the PC theoretical framework in this new context and further theoretical considerations may be informed by the data. Case study research can also include a longitudinal element which is useful in this study as there is a desire to explore whether expectations changed over a period of time.

A further criticism is that case study design maintains a bias towards verification, in other words that there is a trend around needing to substantiate the researcher’s preconceived beliefs thus jeopardising the value of research outcomes. This criticism however is not apparent to many eminent researchers who have conducted in-depth case studies (Campbell, 1975; Flyvbjerg 2006; Geertz, 1995; Ragin & Becker, 1992; Wieviorka, 1992) and have indicated that their experience reveals a tendency towards falsification of preconceived beliefs rather than towards verification, as the more intense observation allows for new detailed insights to be made which challenge those pre-existing notions, thus moving learning to a new level and allowing for sense-making to occur.

The choice of case study research design has been justified in this section. It has demonstrated that it is an appropriate design for this research and indeed that the approach will be particularly useful in illuminating the behaviour and expectations of students and staff. The next section of this chapter will discuss the choice of methods used to collect the data.

4.4.2 Mixed Method

Mixed Method research requires balance and an open mind to the benefits of various approaches to research. “Good social science is problem driven and not methodology driven, in the sense that it employs those methods which for a given problematic best help answer the research questions at hand” (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 245). This research inquiry has taken a mixed methods approach to its methods of data collection and subsequent data analysis.

The rationale for the use of a mixed method approach at the data collection stage *i.e.* the use of both a quantitative method (survey) and a qualitative method (semi-structured interviews) is that this tool kit represents the best way to collect the necessary evidence to explore the research question and meet the objectives of the research project. (Table 4.1 summarises the purpose of the surveys and semi-structured interviews and provides further detail as to how they contributed to the research aim and objectives.) The survey was designed and constructed from information collected in the literature on student expectations (Abrantes, Seabra & Lages, 2007; Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006; Brinkworth *et al.*, 2009; Byrne & Flood, 2005; Cook & Leckey, 1999; Crisp *et al.*, 2009; Lane, 2010; Long & Tricker, 2004; Nicholson *et al.*, 2011; Pozo-Munoz *et al.*, 2010; Sander *et al.*, 2000; Shank *et al.*, 1996; Torenbeek *et al.*, 2011; Voss & Gruber, 2006; Voss *et al.*, 2007) and from the findings of an exploratory focus group conducted with previous students within the researcher’s business school to ascertain students’ current expectations. For example the findings of Torenbeek *et al.* (2011) that specific school characteristics impacted on first year achievement informed the decision to include question 3, ‘Type of School’ and question 5, ‘My school / college has prepared me well for my course at university’. Section 4 in the survey which asked students to respond to a list of expectations that they may have of their tutor/lecturer was compiled in part from previous research conducted by Brinkworth *et al.*, 2009, Sander *et al.*, 2000 and Voss & Gruber, 2006. The study by Brinkworth *et al.* (2009) further informed Section 5, expectations that students might have of themselves whilst at university, by suggesting statements to include which had been found to be important in their findings such as attendance at lectures and seminars.

It was felt however that some of the expectations identified in the literature review may not be pertinent in the context of this research inquiry (having been conducted prior to the introduction of tuition fees of £8750 in 2012) and that therefore the collection of additional

Table 4.1 Purpose of Surveys (Questionnaires) and Semi-Structured Interviews

Data Collection Method/Instrument	Purpose/Justification	Contribution towards Research Aim & Objectives
Survey of Students (Questionnaire)	<p>To capture students' expectations of the pedagogic relationship prior to their actual experience.</p> <p>To reduce impact of hindsight bias (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006).</p> <p>To establish contemporary pre-entry expectations and their relative importance; to "play a role in providing base-line" information (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007, p. 115).</p>	<p>Research Aim – identification of pre-entry expectations.</p> <p>RO1 – to establish pre-entry expectations. RO2 – to establish how expectations have been formed. RO3 – to contribute to establishing whether and how student expectations change over time.</p>
Survey of Academics (Questionnaire)	<p>To capture how academics perceive the expectations of students regarding the pedagogic relationship and compare to students perceptions.</p> <p>To ascertain whether differences in perceptions of expectations exist between academics and students.</p>	<p>Research Aim – identification of expectations.</p> <p>RO4 – to establish academics' perceptions of the expectations of students regarding the pedagogic relationship. RO5 – to identify whether differences in expectations exist between academics and students.</p>
Semi-Structured Student Interviews Three phases	<p>To explore the lived experiences of students regarding their expectations of the pedagogic relationship and the meanings they make of this experience (Seidman, 2006).</p> <p>To explore how and whether expectations of the pedagogic relationship change over time and how this impacts on their first year experience.</p>	<p>Research Aim – to explore how expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year experience as experienced by students.</p> <p>ROs 1,2,3 & 5 – to explore these in further detail. RO6 – to explore the reciprocal obligations between students and academics.</p>
Semi-Structured Academic Interviews	<p>To explore the lived experiences of academics regarding their expectations of the pedagogic relationship and the meanings they make of this experience.</p>	<p>Research Aim – to explore how expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year experience as experienced by academics.</p> <p>ROs 4 & 5 – to explore these in further detail. RO6 – to explore the reciprocal obligations between students and academics.</p>

quantitative data at this stage - to establish what current expectations were and their relative importance - could “play a role in providing base-line” information (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007, p. 115) which could help inform the design of the semi-structured interviews and support some of the findings. Rossman and Wilson (1985) also acknowledged that a combination of research methods could provide “richer data” whilst Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) found that a mixed method research approach could help with clarification of the results from one method with results from the other method, thus complementing each other.

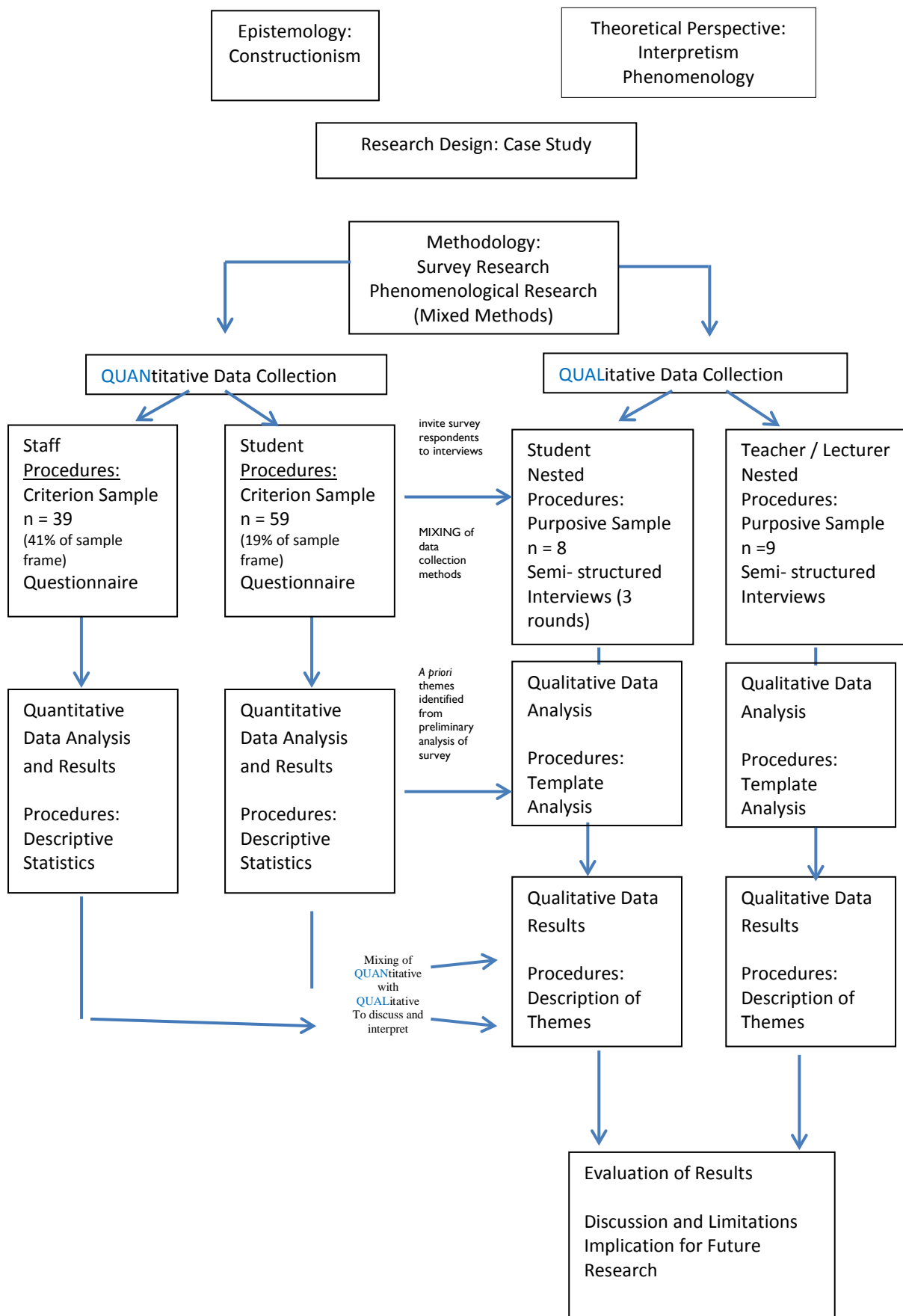
Those who employ a mixed method approach within their research are encouraged to justify their decision with reference to the philosophical approach of pragmatism (Biesta 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Migiro & Magangi, 2011), seeing “pragmatism as a well-developed and attractive philosophy for integrating perspectives and approaches” (Johnson *et al.*, 2007, p. 125). Pragmatists value both quantitative and qualitative research and advocate the use of any combination in order to achieve the epistemological justification status that Dewey (1859-1952) referred to as ‘warranted assertability’ (Hibberts & Johnson, 2012, p. 124). However pragmatism itself remains a significant dimension within an interpretivist/relativism approach to human inquiry with links to the tradition of symbolic interactionism through the work of George Herbert Mead and Herbert Blumer (Crotty, 2006) and, at its core, the main point remains that the structures of meaning (how we appropriate, classify and integrate what we take to be knowledge) must come from the lived experiences of individuals (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012). Consequently mixed methods research could be viewed more accurately as a “method” rather than a philosophical undertaking, allowing the researcher to justify its use within the tradition of phenomenological philosophy as a method ‘what works best’ to make sense of the meanings that others have about their lived world. As Schwandt (2000) stated “all research is interpretive, and we face a multiplicity of methods that are suitable for different kinds of understandings” (p. 210).

As an interpretivist I do still prioritise the interpretation and meaning of human experience over measurement, explanation and prediction but recognise in a *pragmatic*, practical manner that this does not preclude the use of quantitative methods of collecting data. The two main considerations in the design of any study intending to use a mixed method design are sequencing and dominance (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012). With regards to sequencing,

quantitative data was collected via a survey prior to the qualitative data collection via semi-structured interviews. With regard to dominance, the qualitative data has dominated; this is best described as a “handmaid design” (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012, p. 61) as the quantitative data collection helped to serve and inform the needs of the semi-structured interview. In this research the interviews are dominant and the surveys’ results serve to aid the researcher to highlight key constructs to be explored in subsequent discussions at the interview stage, thus improving the credibility of the questions. The research conducted can therefore be described as a qualitative dominant mixed method approach and can be symbolised as quan + QUAL research⁵ (Johnson, *et al.*, 2007). The Research Framework of Study (Figure 11) shows how the data is used.

⁵ Quan is an abbreviation for quantitative research, QUAL is an abbreviation for qualitative research and the use of capital letters denotes the dominant approach.

Figure 4.2 Research Framework of Study



4.5 Sampling and Selection

In order to answer the research question and meet the research aim it was necessary to consider carefully how to choose appropriate research participants within the case study design. In both quantitative and qualitative studies (probabilistic (quant) vs. non-probabilistic sampling (qual)), researchers must decide the number of participants to select (*i.e.* sample size) and how to select these sample members (*i.e.* sampling scheme). Invariably in studies which combine research methods from both paradigms, sampling decisions are made more difficult due to the need for two types of sampling schemes to be developed (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). The vast majority of both qualitative and quantitative studies use non-random samples and this is also the outcome in most mixed method research (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). This approach fits with the objective of this study which is not to achieve “statistical generalizability” but to achieve “analytic generalizability” and “case to case transfer” (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007, p. 283) with a further goal to not generalise to a population but to obtain detailed insights into the pedagogic relationship; as a consequence the sample has been purposefully selected with individuals and groups which have been identified as “information rich” (Patton, 1990, p. 126) which is suitable to an interpretivist study.

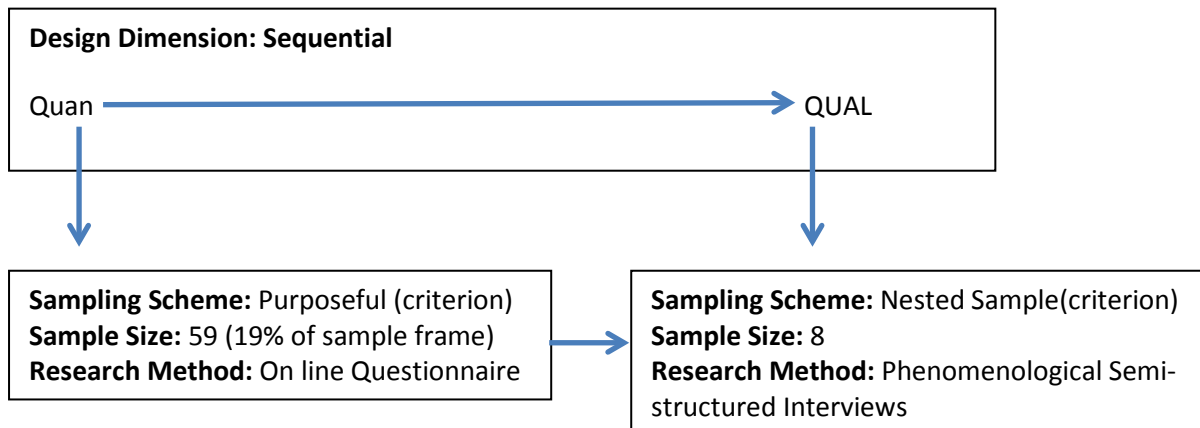
In 2007 Onwuegbuzie and Collins identified 19 purposive sampling schemes; the scheme used in this inquiry is criterion based (where the groups and individuals were chosen because they represented one or more criteria). Mixed sampling designs can be further classified according to two dimensions – the sequence of data collection (*i.e.* time orientation) and the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative sample (*i.e.* sample relationship) (Hibberts & Johnson, 2012). As mentioned previously the researcher has decided to use a qualitative dominant mixed method approach (quan + QUAL research) and the sample relationship can be referred to as a nested relationship meaning that the sample from the quantitative phase is used to select a sub-sample of participants in the qualitative phase of the study. This mixed sampling design is therefore referred to as a sequential – nested sampling design as seen in Figure 4.3.

Questionnaires were administered to students and academic staff who met certain criteria (see section 4.5.1) and from these participants a further selection were sampled to conduct the

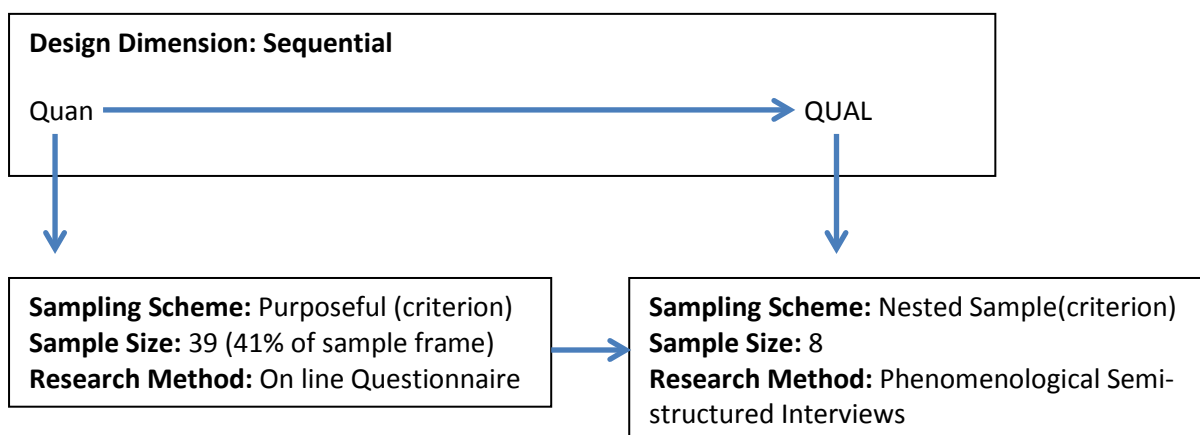
phenomenological semi-structured interviews to illicit further in-depth data and explore findings from the questionnaire – thus both methods complement each other.

Figure 4.3 Sequential-Nested Sampling Design

Student



Teachers / Lecturers / Academics

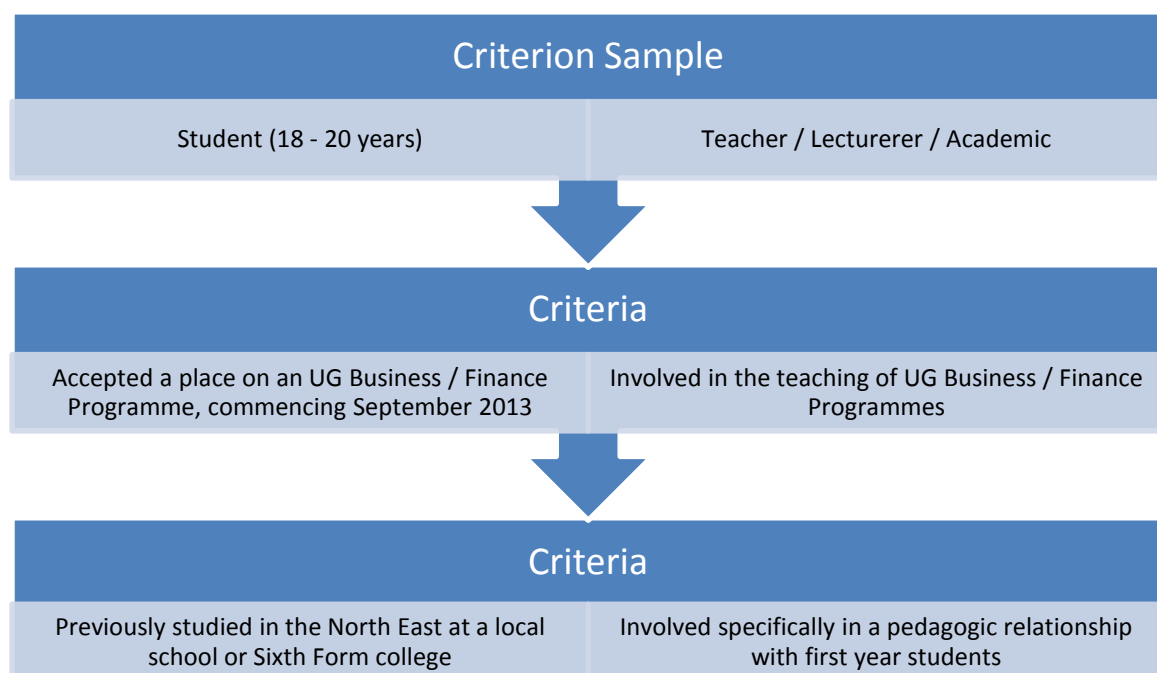


A further concern regarding the recruitment of participants for the academic staff sample was researcher positionality. Moore (2012) raised the question within her research as to whether she was “selecting the group members based on their theoretical relevance or whether [she] was selecting people who were likely to agree” (p. 13), suggesting the potential for exploitation and coercion during recruitment for insider research, an issue also identified by Busher and James (2012). For that reason it is important to make explicit the criteria used in identifying participants in the sample to mitigate any suggestion of bias which could distort the data collection process.

4.5.1 Criteria Used in Identifying Participants for Sample.

In line with the phenomenological approach to inquiry and the case study design, research participants were selected on the basis of their experience of the phenomenon *i.e.* they were all participants in the first year pedagogic relationship either as students or academic staff at the university. Specifically the research inquiry focused on the expectations of new students to HE within the area of business management and academic staff expectations of these students. (Figure 4.4 shows the criteria used in the selection of samples for both students and academic staff). In line with the aims of a professional doctorate to make a contribution to both knowledge and practice it was most important that the students had previously studied locally either at a school or sixth form college and were not mature students *i.e.* over 21 years of age. This was due to the context in which the research sits and the importance, previously discussed in section 2.2.1, of the notion that students fresh from their tertiary education experiences had become increasingly reliant on a ‘spoon fed’ relationship with their teachers and one of the objectives of this research is to explore the impact that this may have had on their expectation of pedagogic relationships within HE.

Figure 4.4 Criterion Purposeful Sample



4.5.2 Sample Size

A mixed method research approach must also determine appropriate sample sizes for each phase of research. As mentioned previously the research did not seek to make statistical generalisations from the analysis of either the quantitative data or the qualitative data and the research is exploratory in nature.

4.5.2.1 Survey Sample – Student

The sampling frame used in the quantitative phase of the research for students was drawn from university internal admissions data. All North Eastern students who had received a firm offer with the faculty and had accepted this offer to start in September 2013 (307 = sample frame) were contacted and 59 survey responses were received (19%). It had been hoped a greater response rate would occur however online survey response rates do vary widely (Baruch & Holtom, 2008); the existing survey literature indicates that for online surveys the response rate is closely related to the source of the survey (and their salience in the eyes of the participants), the salience of the topic and how long the survey takes to complete (Fan & Yan, 2010). The questionnaire was piloted with a group of students (15) who had just completed their L3 studies and were preparing for university. The students completed the questionnaire on line (see Appendix 3 for copy of questionnaire and table 4.6 for questionnaire data rationale guide) and were then asked to complete an evaluation form asking about their perception of the questions and the wording used therein and whether they thought the research was important enough for them to want to do the questionnaire. Their feedback on terminology, clarity, length and relevance resulted in only minor revisions in the wording of two items and was mostly positive.

The administration of the survey had also closely followed advice on best practice given within the literature, for example emails had been personalised as this has been shown to have a positive effect on retention and completion rates (Sanchez-Fernandez, Munoz-Leiva & Montoro-Rios, 2012) and extra effort had been made to convince potential participants to complete the survey (through the use of an incentive⁶ and three follow-up emails to the

⁶ All respondents were entered into a draw to win a PhilipsGoGear Vibe MP4 player 4GB.

potential participants reminding them of the opportunity to take part; these measures do tend to boost online response rates (Nulty, 2008). The number of non-respondents was of some concern to the researcher as research has suggested that in New Zealand student non-respondent behaviour can impact upon results (Kypri, Samaranayaka, Connor, Langley & MacLennan, 2011). One method to overcome this would be to undertake intensive follow-up procedures with non-respondents (Wild, Cunningham & Adlaf, 2001), however the timescale for completion of the survey and ethical restrictions prevented the researcher from attempting other methods to increase the overall response rate. The number of responses however was sufficient to allow for exploratory data analysis to be conducted to inform the subsequent qualitative interviews.

The scheduling of the administration of the student questionnaires was critical. It was imperative that the participants completed the questionnaire in a specific timeframe. They had to complete the questionnaire after they had received an unconditional offer following their L3 results and before they started their programme. This was to minimise any occurrence of hindsight bias (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006).

Table 4.2 Details of Timings of the Administration of the Questionnaire to Student Participants

Date	Activity
8 th August 2013	A Level results announced
12 th August 2013	Questionnaire sent to sample
19 th August – 14 th September 2013	Reminders sent to sample
15 th September 2013	Questionnaire closed
16 th September 2013	Students start university

4.5.2.2 Survey Sample – Academic Staff

The sampling frame used in the quantitative phase of the research for academic staff was drawn again from university internal data. All staff who taught L4 students were asked to take part in the survey (96 = sampling frame) and 39 survey responses were completed (41%). Again the questionnaire was piloted with five other lecturers within the institution

who did not meet the criteria for the sampling frame. They completed the questionnaire online and were then asked to complete an evaluation form asking about their perception of the questions and the wording used therein and whether they thought the research was important enough for them to want to do the questionnaire. Their feedback on terminology, clarity, length and relevance resulted in minor revisions in the wording of questions but their comments did result in extensive changes to the wording of the invitation which was to be sent out to the sample asking them to take part, making it much clearer as to the purpose of the survey.

The academic staff questionnaire schedule is detailed below.

Table 4.3 Details of Timings of the Administration of the Questionnaire to Academic Participants

Date	Activity
9 th October 2013	Questionnaire sent to sample
13 th October 2013 – 24 th October 2013	Reminders sent
25 th October 2013	Questionnaire closed

4.5.2.3 Interview Sample – Student

The online survey received 59 responses of which 32 participants had stated that they would be happy to be contacted whilst at university to assist further in this research. These individuals were sent a further email when they started university and eight participants agreed to take part in the semi-structured interviews. This was in line with what the literature suggests for minimum sample size recommendations for phenomenological interviews (Creswell (1988) stating no more than ten and Morse (1994) stating no less than six).

4.5.2.4 Interview Sample – Academic Staff

The selection of the sample for the semi-structured interviews for academic staff was again criterion based. A list of those lecturers who were involved in the curriculum design and delivery of L4 modules (Module Tutors) was sought (15) and from that set those lecturers

who were in charge of core modules were asked to further participate. This resulted in a sample size of eight participants.

4.5.2.5 Non-Response Bias

Due to the low response rate in the initial quantitative survey with students there was a risk that the subsequent results from the semi-structured interview could be subject to non-response bias. Goyder (1987) had found that in surveys non-respondents do differ from respondents with regard to their attitude and behaviour; this is also seen in other research which has indicated that “students who respond to surveys differ from those [who do not respond] in terms of their study behaviour and academic attainment” (Astin, 1970; Neilsen, Moos & Lee, 1978; Watkins & Hattie, 1985, p. 406). However Nowell, Gale and Kerkvliet’s (2014) quantitative study into non-response bias in university students’ evaluations of teaching showed the bias resulting from their low online response rate to be negligibly small and their results appeared to be representative of the population as a whole. I have taken these concerns into consideration within the limitation of my research (see section 4.10).

4.6 Research Instruments

4.6.1 Questionnaire Design – Student Survey

The questionnaire was researcher-developed after consideration of:

- findings from a focus group comprising of Year 1 students who were at the end of their first year
- items identified from a review of published literature on educational transitions and expectations.

It should be noted at this stage that much of the research and resulting data previously published has had a wider agenda in that many researchers were exploring issues surrounding academic preparedness/expectations of teaching as well as expectations and preparedness on

social adjustment and had been conducted prior to 2012 when universities were not able to charge up to £9000 a year for the annual tuition costs of students.

The literature on PCs (see Chapter 3) also informed my lines of inquiry by focusing on both the expectations that students have of their university teachers and of themselves (to try and develop an understanding of how they see their relationships) and to ascertain whether the relationship is reciprocal. Briner & Conway (2009) regard these as essential features within a PC which can help to understand behaviour at work and therefore potentially within the social relationships of education. There was also a desire to discover the relative importance of these expectations to the students to deduce whether this elevates expectations into promises or obligations (Rousseau, 1995).

The questionnaire used a self-administered online (web-based) questionnaire (Qualtrics) structured around a number of areas which are detailed in Table 4.4. A four-point Likert scale was utilised as research has shown that social desirability bias, arising from respondents' desires to please the interviewer or to appear helpful or to avoid being seen to give what they believe to be a socially unacceptable answer, can be reduced by eliminating the mid-point/neutral category from Likert scales (Garland, 1991).

The questionnaire can be viewed in Appendix 3.

Table 4.4 Student Questionnaire Data Rationale Guide

Research Objectives – To capture data on what first year business students expect of their lecturers/teachers and of themselves within the pedagogical relationship. To capture data on where these expectations have come from.			
Section	Variables Required	Detail in which data measured	Question (s) Rationale
Opening Statement	N/A	N/A	To introduce the purpose of the research. To reassure participants of the ethical policy governing the research.
About yourself and your previous education (Section 1 - 5 questions)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender Name of School / College Academic Qualifications achieved Preparedness for university 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male, Female Name of School / College Secondary, Private, Sixth Form College, FE College, Other A Levels, BTEC, IB, Other 4 scale Likert from Not true to Don't know 	These questions were designed to ascertain whether gender, school or academic qualifications impacted upon student expectations.
About your chosen course (Section 2 - 1 question)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programme student is about to start. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Name of Programme 	This question was asked for further background information on candidate and to help select participants for the sample from a range of programmes.
About your expectations of your course (Section 3 - 1 question)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expectations of the programme itself 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4 scale Likert from Not true to Don't know 	This question was asked to clarify what general expectations they have of the course.

<p>About your expectations of your tutors/university teachers and the importance of these expectations for you</p> <p>(Section 4 - 4 questions)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expectations of tutor • Importance of those expectations • Identification of most important expectation • Justification of why important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 scale Likert from All of the time to Never • 4 scale Likert from Very important to Not at all important • Specific expectation • Qualitative response 	<p>These next questions were central to the research inquiry as they were designed to ascertain whether expectations previously identified in the literature and in the focus group were relevant to new students. The open question also allowed students to give more insight into their response as this was identified as important by others in the field (Smith & Wertlieb, 2005; Voss <i>et al.</i>, 2007)</p>
<p>About your expectations of yourself as a student and the importance of these expectations of yourself</p> <p>(Section 5 - 4 questions)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expectations of yourself • Importance of meeting these expectations • Identification of most important expectation • Justification of why important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 scale Likert question from Not true to Don't know • 4 scale Likert question from Very important to Not important • Specific expectation • Qualitative response 	<p>The purpose of this set of questions was to build upon the previous section and to identify self-expectations. This was important to see whether the relationship could be considered in terms of a reciprocal relationship (Briner & Conway, 2009).</p>
<p>About how your expectation have been formed</p> <p>(Section 6 - 1 question)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification of who has informed expectations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friends, Brothers/Sisters, School/Teachers, Parents, Open Day, Others 	<p>If this research inquiry identified that students' and lecturers' expectations were not in line and that this needs addressing then it was important to identify where these expectations were developed so that</p>

			<p>action could be taken.</p> <p>Prompts based on factors identified by Zeithaml <i>et al.</i> (1990).</p>
<p>Looking ahead</p> <p>(Section 7 - 3 questions)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classification of degree hoped to achieve • Classification of degree expect to achieve • Employment aspirations after degree 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1st, 2:1, 2:2, 3rd, not sure • 1st, 2:1, 2:2, 3rd, not sure • 4 scale Likert from Not likely to Don't know 	<p>The purpose of these questions was to see whether students' aspirations impacted on their expectations as implied in Torenbeek <i>et al.</i> (2011).</p>
<p>Participant's contact details to confirm whether they would be interested to partake in any follow up research</p> <p>(1 question)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Happy to be contacted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes/ No 	<p>The purpose of this question was the need to secure participants for the Sequential- Nested Sampling Design as detailed in section 3.5.</p>
<p>Prize Draw</p> <p>(2 questions)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entered into the prize draw • Contact details 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes / No • First Name • Surname • Email • Contact Number 	<p>Sanchez-Fernandez <i>et al.</i> (2012) suggest that the use of an incentive to improve the quality and quantity of the response to an online survey does not bring about any significant benefits. However the researcher determined that such an incentive may encourage this particular target group to respond. Although contact details were revealed, anonymity has been guaranteed in accordance with the university's ethical policy.</p>

4.6.2 Questionnaire Design – Staff Survey

The questionnaire was researcher-developed and was similar in design and content to that of the student survey (the questionnaire can be viewed in Appendix 4).

The questionnaire used a self-administered online (web-based) questionnaire structured around a number of areas which are detailed in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Academic Staff Questionnaire Data Rationale Guide

Research Objectives – To capture data on what academic staff perceive to be first year business students’ expectations of their lecturers/teachers and of themselves within the pedagogical relationship.			
Section	Variables Required	Detail in which data measured	Question (s) Rationale
Opening statement	N/A	N/A	To introduce the purpose of the research. To reassure participants of the ethical policy governing the research
About yourself (Section 1 - 1 question)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male, Female 	These questions were designed to ascertain whether gender impacted upon responses.
About student expectations of their course (Section 2 - 1 question)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expectation of the programme itself 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4 scale Likert from Not true to Don’t know 	This question was asked to clarify the general expectations that academic staff consider students to have of their course.
About student expectations of their tutors/ university teachers and their importance to students. (Section 3 - 4 questions)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Student expectations of tutor Importance of those expectations to students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4 scale Likert from All of the time to Never 4 scale Likert from Very important to Not at all important. 	These next questions were central to the research inquiry as they were designed to ascertain whether academic staff perceptions of students’ expectations were similar to those of students.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification of most important expectation • Justification of why important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific expectation • Qualitative response 	
<p>About student expectations of themselves as a student and their importance to students.</p> <p>(Section 4 - 4 questions)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student expectations of themselves • Importance to students of meeting these expectations • Identification of most important expectation • Justification of why important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 scale Likert question from Not true to Don't know • 4 scale Likert question from Very important to Not important • Specific expectation • Qualitative response 	<p>The purpose of this set of questions was to build upon the previous section and to identify what academic staff perceive to be students' self-expectations. Furthermore this was important to see whether the relationship could be considered in terms of a reciprocal relationship (Briner & Conway, 2009).</p>
<p>Looking ahead</p> <p>(Section 5 - 3 questions)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classification of degree hoped to achieve • Classification of degree expect to achieve • Employment aspirations after degree 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1st, 2:1, 2:2, 3rd, not sure • 1st, 2:1, 2:2, 3rd, not sure • 4 scale Likert from Not likely to Don't know 	<p>The purpose of these questions was to see whether academic staff perceived that students' aspirations impacted on their expectations as implied in Torenbeek <i>et al.</i> (2011).</p>

4.6.3. Interviews

The choice of semi-structured interviews as a research tool was influenced by the author's epistemological stance of constructionism, and motivated by: "An interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of their experience" (Seidman, 2006, p. 9).

Within semi-structured interviews the interviewee helps shape the conversation, "what they want to say becomes as important as what the researcher wants to ask" (Bush, 2012, p. 79). All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed in full by a third party. The decision to outsource the transcription was based purely upon time constraints faced by the researcher, however precise details were given to the transcriber following good practice procedures as identified by Langdridge (2007). All transcripts were transcribed verbatim and included grammatical errors and mispronunciations. I wanted the script to stay as close as possible to the original speech of the participant; this was in-keeping with a phenomenological stance. Once interviews were transcribed I listened to the audio recorded versions alongside the hard copy transcripts correcting any errors which had been made in transcription. This process allowed me to fully engage with the data. It also allowed me to listen once more to the participants' lived experiences from their position at that moment in time.

4.6.3.1 Interviews – Students

Each student participant was interviewed three times during the course of their first year at university (see Table 4.6) and each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. Phase 1 and 2 used the same questions as it was felt that students' responses in the first phase may have been informed from sources outside of the university and that it would be useful to compare their responses after they had experienced university for a number of months. Within the PC literature, Bordia *et al.* (2010) also suggested that in order to better understand the dynamic nature of student PCs, longitudinal studies should be conducted as such designs would help us to understand student priorities within the constraints of the contract at different times during the first year.

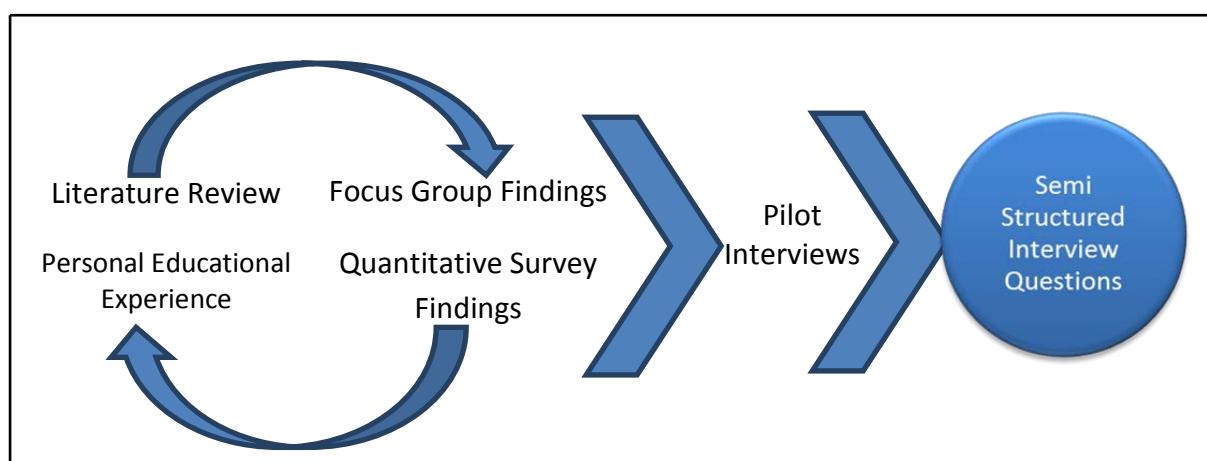
Table 4.6 Details of Student Research Participants and Chronology of Interviews

Interview Participant Ref. No.	Gender	Date of Interviews (Phase 1,2 and 3)	Previous Institution	Discipline Area
S1	M	26/11/13 25/3/14 3/6/14	State High School	Business and Management
S2	F	27/11/13 27/3/14 30/5/14	State Comprehensive	Business and Management
S3	M	27/11/13 26/3/14 2/6/14	State Comprehensive	Finance and Accounting
S4	F	27/11/13 27/3/14 9/6/14	State Comprehensive	Business and Management
S5	F	28/11/13 28/3/14 5/6/14	Private Independent	Business and Management
S6	F	26/11/13 28/3/14 30/5/14	Sixth Form College	Business and Management
S7	M	27/11/13 24/3/14 2/6/14	Further Education College	Business and Management
S8	M	28/11/13 27/3/14 5/6/14	State Comprehensive	Finance and Accounting

Fully formed questions were utilised throughout (see Appendix 5 & 6 for the interview schedule for each phase and additional prompts) in order to try and ensure that the interviewer concentrated on the specific purpose of the research and did not begin to engage in general conversation – thus detracting from the research focus; a potential pitfall for inexperienced interviewers as identified by King and Horrocks (2010).

The questions were devised from knowledge and literature on educational expectations and the PC, and from the previous quantitative research undertaken. Figure 14 shows that, after an initial review of the literature through the lens of the researcher’s personal educational experiences, possible questions were conceived. These were subsequently changed in light of the information gleaned from a small focus group conducted with L4 students who had nearly completed their first year and from the findings of the quantitative survey. The process was therefore iterative and fluid allowing for all sources to inform and impact upon each other before the formation of the interview schedule. A pilot study was then conducted; participants found the questions accessible and felt comfortable with the interview setting and location. As a result of the pilot study a further question was added – Question 11. This question was only used when it was apparent that student participants viewed the role of seminar tutor and lecturer as different and therefore further clarity was required as to whose expectations they had previously been describing.

Figure 4.5 Process and Sources for Compilation of Interview Questions for Phase 1 and Phase 2



Phase 3 interviews were semi-structured in format but were less directional than in the previous phases. The reason for this was to try to ensure further honest and open

conversation, giving greater richness and credence to participants' responses. Although a more unstructured approach is perhaps more difficult to manage and control, the increased exposure the participants had had to the study over the previous phases minimised any potential organisational or communication problems and a rapport had been established. King and Horrocks (2010) define rapport as "essentially about trust" (p. 48) and over the preceding few months I had worked hard to achieve a positive relationship with the participants so that trust could be developed. This final phase also allowed for member reflections to be sought, allowing for improved research quality as detailed in section 3.8. For example, a number of the participants had commented on the impact of £9000 fees and further probing was necessary to ascertain whether this had impacted upon the nature of their relationship with academic staff and their expectations.

4.6.3.2 Interviews – Academic Staff

Each academic participant was interviewed once with each interview lasting approximately 40 minutes (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Details of Academic Staff Research Participants and Chronology of Interviews

Interview Participant Ref. No.	Gender	Date of Interview
A1	M	6/10/14
A2	M	9/10/14
A3	M	13/10/14
A4	M	9/10/14
A5	F	27/10/14
A6	F	16/10/14
A7	F	15/10/14
A8	F	14/10/14

An interview guide was compiled (see Appendix 6) and a significant amount of planning was undertaken around the format and design of the interviews. This was due to a potential interviewer role conflict and concerns as to how colleagues would interpret the researcher's motivations for conducting this research. As mentioned previously in section 3.2, would colleagues view me as 'a member of their gang' or as somebody who was trying to 'catch them out?' To minimise these issues I opened each interview with an explanation as to the purpose of the research and emphasised my role as a researcher, there to learn and listen. It was reiterated that all information would be treated in the strictest confidence and that all names would be anonymised. What was meant by a 'pedagogic relationship' for the purposes of this research was also explained for clarification. Participants were also given the opportunity to read the transcripts of their interviews prior to analysis to ensure that they reflected their true opinions. Only one participant wanted to read through their interview and this resulted in no subsequent change.

4.6.4 Researcher Personal Reflexivity within the Qualitative Interviews

Throughout this chapter my personal motivations and interest towards the research topic has been clearly outlined and discussed. Personal reflection within qualitative research allows for an acknowledgement of "the ways in which our own values, experiences, interests, beliefs, political commitments, wider aims in life and social identities have shaped the research" (Willig, 2013, p. 10). This recognition of the role of the researcher in co-producing knowledge is central within a phenomenological approach (Langridge, 2007) and highlights the significant impact that the researcher has upon the what, why and how of research (King & Horrocks, 2010). Reflexivity as a "process of personally and academically reflecting on lived experiences in ways that reveal deep connections between the writer and his or her subject" (Goodall, 2000, p. 137) is necessary to the integrity of qualitative research.

With the use of semi-structured interviews there is a need for "disciplined self-reflection" (Wilkinson, 1988, p. 493) as we become more involved in a meaningful relationship with our participants and this may influence how the research develops. When interviewing the student participants I was mindful of the "brought selves" (our historical, social and personal standpoints) (Reinharz, 1997) that I had brought to the research interview – my caring role as a mother and my professional self as a past teacher and academic member of staff. This, to a certain extent, affected my tone and wording of questions. For example when a student

participant was struggling with expressing their ideas in a meaningful way I was always tempted to help them out and to finish their sentence for them. This did not happen after Phase 1 of the interviews, probably as in the subsequent phases the students were more at ease with me, but during data analysis of Phase 1 at times I questioned whether I had said too much with/for certain participants and whether their responses therefore had been swayed by my involvement.

Again during Phase 1 of the interviews I deliberated whether I should reveal to the students that I had been a high school teacher for many years and whether this would impact upon their replies. I decided against this as I did not believe that this personal revelation would add to the process of knowledge production, and in some way may actually bias some of the recalls. By the time I had reached Phase 3 of the students' interviews I had established a good rapport with all student participants and was delighted with their honest and open retorts to the questions. To a certain extent I felt a sense of guilt at this stage as I did not feel that I was being reciprocal; I was holding back in my responses and therefore in some way was being disingenuous.

In a similar manner, whilst interviewing academic participants, I was acutely aware that some may have concerns about the purpose of the research and that its outcome may in some way call into question their professional identities. I believe that due to this, in the first two interviews conducted, the participants were allowed to direct the interview more and I did not sufficiently explore their understandings. Good qualitative interviews should be “dynamic, interactive, social events” (Hatch, 2002, p. 115), however in the first interviews I was more concerned with gaining their trust than listening and interacting with participants. As a consequence I entered the research setting as Pam, ex high school teacher and new senior lecturer as opposed to operating in the awareness that I was there to research and listen as a researcher.

4.7 Data Analysis

4.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis: Exploratory Statistical Analysis

As mentioned in section 3.4.2, mixed methods research is both interactive and iterative (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012) as the use of one method can subsequently inform the

next phase of the data collection – in this study the data gained from the quantitative research informed the data collection method for the qualitative phase. The analysis of the data in this study draws upon the principles outlined by Tukey's (1977) exploratory data analysis where individual components and their variables are analysed before the researcher compares and searches for relationships across the data. The key aspects that need to be considered within this research have been guided by the research question and require identification of those expectations that are most important to students and staff regarding their role within the pedagogic relationship. Thus highest and lowest values of expectations and their importance were calculated from the data and comparisons of relationships were examined through ranking the constructs. Teddlie and Tashakorri (1998) support this approach indicating that where mixed methods apply, the quantitative data should use descriptive statistics to explore relationships between variables; remembering that a statistically significant relationship does not in itself imply causality hence the subsequent move to further qualitative research. Both nominal and ordinal data was collected and analysed using SPSS for Windows computer software. The findings from the quantitative research will be discussed in section 4.2.

In short, the survey was subjected to inductive statistical analysis to provide confirmatory evidence to support and inform the qualitative phase of the research. As Crotty (2006) comments "the ability to measure and count is a precious human achievement and it behoves us not to be dismissive of it" (p. 15).

4.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis: Thematic Analysis

One of the main challenges surrounding qualitative research is that it usually generates large amounts of textual data which then must be analysed; this is the case in this study. Miles (1979) referred to qualitative data as an "attractive nuisance" due to the fact that it provides us with rich detail but leaves us with the problem of finding an analytical path through that richness. Thematic analysis is a broad approach covering those methods that are used for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). All styles of thematic analysis share two main characteristics; the need to define themes that encapsulates important aspects of the data and to then organise these themes in a structure that demonstrates conceptual relationships between the themes (King & Brooks, 2016). The

choice of a method of data analysis for qualitative data must be guided by the methodological position of the study and its underlying epistemological and ontological assumptions.

Template analysis (King 1998) is a generic style of thematic analysis which is not inextricably linked to any particular methodology or underlying philosophy and therefore can be used within a variety of epistemological positions (Waring & Wainwright, 2008). It offers a balance of structure and flexibility in how it handles textual data and is suited to those taking a contextual approach *i.e.* data is understood as being a part of a broader existence (King & Brooks, 2016). Madill, Jordan and Shirley (2000) refer to this as a “contextual constructivist.” Although a relatively new qualitative data analysis method, template analysis has similarities with other data matrices-based methods, most notably those developed by Miles and Huberman (1994).

Within phenomenological studies, template analysis is regarded as an alternative to interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), with both recognising the need for greater interpretation of the data in comparison to descriptive phenomenological approaches. However, template analysis, unlike IPA which is always inductive and grounded in the data with themes emerging from the text (Langridge, 2007), allows for a template of themes to be constructed before reading any transcripts and can be used to examine the data for meaning. Thus *a priori* codes can be defined on the basis of previous research and literature which may help guide the analysis, providing direction and focus. The initial template however is not fixed and template analysis requires the analysts to review and examine the data on numerous occasions to elicit new meanings and experiences. Template analysis, also unlike IPA, does allow for cross-case analysis and longitudinal studies and also allows for the analysis of more cases than perhaps other interpretative methods (King & Brooks, 2016).

4.7.2.1 Appropriateness of Template Analysis for this Study

The research questions and objectives were fairly narrow in focus and as such initial data analysis also drew upon the principles employed within a typological analysis procedural framework (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). Here, initial typologies (categories) were generated from the literature and research objectives, and early data processing occurred within these typological groupings presented as *a priori* themes. This then allowed for advancement to the next level of analysis with analytic generalisations/summaries produced related to the

research questions/objectives from which an interpretive dimension to the generalisations/summaries was provided. Hatch (2002) suggests that studies which approach their data analysis in such a way will be richer and that findings will be more substantial (see Figure 4.6 for detail as to how the data analysis progressed).

As a method of qualitative data analysis, template analysis was most suited to this study. The methodology as described in this chapter required an analytical method which was flexible and fluid. The use of *a priori* themes (or typologies) was helpful in a mixed method approach as it created the potential to integrate the findings from the quantitative data with the qualitative analysis. That the process began with a more deductive phase did not prohibit the researcher from being aware that other important themes were likely to be present and indeed emerge from the data, nor did it preclude the researcher from being receptive to searching for them.

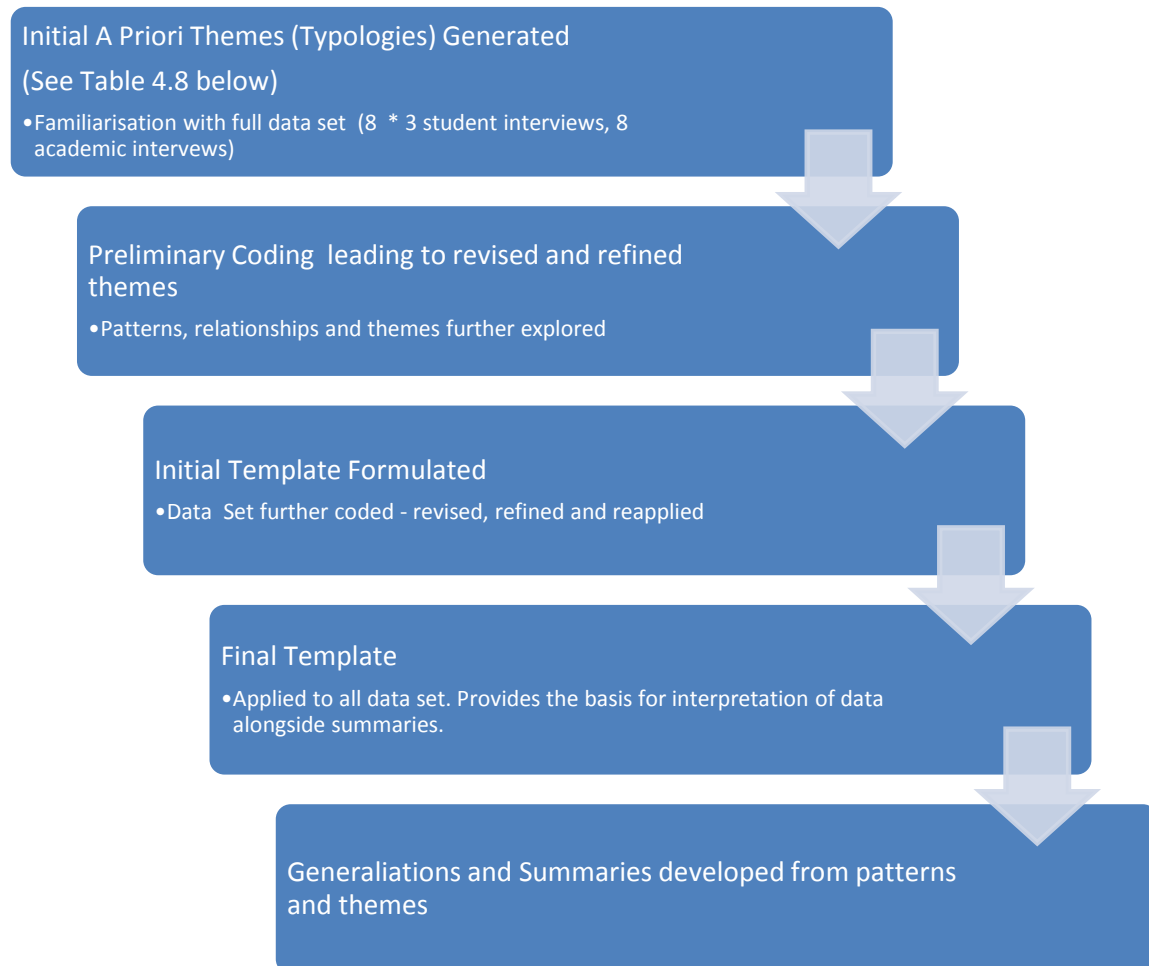
Furthermore, within this study there was a strong emphasis on inter-group comparison – between academic staff and students. The template analysis method allows for this by giving the researcher the flexibility to produce a separate template for each group and then allow differences between these to suggest comparisons, or to produce a single template for both groups and then compare the patterns or themes across the groups. In this study it was decided that a common single template for both groups would be most appropriate as it was the best way to compare the impact of the relationship across the groups and over an extended period of time. The significance of the flexibility to modify the template was important also within this research, allowing researcher reflexivity due to the iterative process of reviewing codes and assessing their appropriateness at the different stages of the research. It also allowed for the further development of those themes with the richest features of the data in relation to the research question.

4.7.3 Qualitative Data Analysis: The Procedure

This section will explain the process used to analyse the data and, as such, is important as it enables other researchers to evaluate the appropriateness of the research and have confidence in its results. It will demonstrate the active role played by myself in the identification and

interpretation of the themes and the reporting of them (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Figure 15 shows the qualitative research analysis process used in this study.

Figure 4.6 The Qualitative Research Analysis Process Used



As mentioned previously, typological analysis procedures are effective for semi-structured interviews when research questions are fairly narrow in focus; this informed the early decision to spend some time transforming the data in a descriptive way (Patton, 1990). Table 4.8 shows the original *a priori* themes (typologies) identified for initial analysis of the data set.

Table 4.8 Original *A Priori* Themes

Expectations of Academics as perceived by academics and students
Expectations of Students as perceived by academics and students
Sources shaping expectations
Experiences of the pedagogic relationship

Hard copies of all transcripts were then read in full and entries related to the *a priori* themes were marked and coded. At this stage other entries which seemed pertinent in contributing to my understanding of the research topic within the data were also coded. Individual summaries of each participant were then produced recording my initial naïve interpretations of their expectations and how they described their experiences of the pedagogic relationship. Next an initial template (see Table 4.9) was generated which was then applied to all transcripts with the template being further modified as required on a number of occasions (eight templates were produced in total).

At this point the decision was made to use a computer software programme (NVIVO Version 10) to assist in the sorting and organisation of data as it became apparent that this would allow the process to be completed more efficiently. I had previously envisaged that I would not use such software as I was concerned that this could be seen as a substitute for the careful reading and detailed thinking required for making sense of and interpreting qualitative data. NVIVO proved to be a useful tool as I took an iterative and interactive approach to analysis which the software helped to facilitate as I had the ability to search the data quickly for particular themes and I was mindful throughout that the outcomes of “computer-assisted analysis are only as good as the data, the thinking, and the level of care that went into them” (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).

Template analysis is an iterative process and the template changed as the analysis progressed. For example, as I immersed myself in the scripts it became apparent that some of the themes were more prevalent at certain times during the first year and it made sense therefore to create two new top themes: ‘Newbie Expectations and Experiences’ and ‘Post-Entry experiences – Reality Changes’ and merge other subthemes underneath such as ‘Tuition Fees’ under the ‘Newbie’ top theme, as I observed that when these were mentioned by student participants it

was mainly used as a justification to meet basic expectations at the start of their programme. The final template (see Table 4.10) was produced which satisfactorily summarised the data. It was from this template that final interpretations were made and the theoretical implications of the findings addressed (Nadin & Williams, 2011, p. 116).

Table 4.9 Initial Template for Student and Academic Qualitative Data Analysis

THEMES
<p>1. Learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is it? (What does a student understand learning to be?) • Why do it? (Why do I need to learn?) • How is it to be done? (How do I expect to learn – what are the processes?) • What is university for?
<p>2. Expectations of University Teacher</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different Expectations of Lecturer – transactional, explicit, expert, one-way, formal, predicted, adequate • Different Expectations of Seminar Tutor – relational, implicit, source of support, reciprocal , less formal, desired
<p>3. Expectations of ‘Studentness’ – what does it mean to be a first year student at university?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As perceived by academic • As perceived by student. • Importance of ‘studentness’ in the first year.
<p>4. Type of Expectation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic • Salient
<p>5. Professionalism</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As a justification of expectations • As a justification for actions when expectations are not being met. • Ideological commitments
<p>6. Size Matters</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shaping expectations • As an excuse • As a barrier
<p>7. Transition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic - differences in educational systems • Personal - growing up/maturity • As a socialisation period to shape/mould/readjust expectations • Changes in expectations

8. Expectations of the Future

- As a student
- After university

9. Sources of Expectations

- Other students – internal, credible source, authentic
- Open days – internal, credible source, authentic
- Academics – internal, credible source, authentic
- School/College Teachers - external, credible source, authentic
- Family - parents, siblings – external

10. Consequences of Expectations

- Fulfilment (meeting and/or exceeding)
 - Emotional
 - Behavioural
- Breach (not meeting)
 - Emotional
 - Behavioural

11. Types of Relationships between Academic and Student

- Student as Customer
- Student as Partner
- Student as Learner

12. State of Relationship

- Good Relationships – reciprocal, fair, consistent, trust, sustainable, two-way communication
- Poor Relationships – lack of Support

13. Assessment

- Shaping Expectations

14. Criticism

- How it is made?

15. Support

- Purpose of
 - from student perspective
 - from academic perspective
- Where it comes from?
- Why is it needed?
 - Insecurity
 - Not coping
 - No support
 - Fear of the unknown
 - Fear of failing

16. Tuition Fees

- As justification to meet basic expectations
- Providing a sense of entitlement
- As justification for a change of expectations

17. Impact of Others

- University
- Other students
- Other professionals
- External environment

18. Not all Students are the Same

- Previous Educational Experience
- Personality
- Ability
- Cultural
- Level

Table 4.10 Final Template for Student and Academic Qualitative Data Analysis

<p>1. Expectation of ‘Studentness’ - What does it mean to be a student?</p> <p>1.1 As perceived by academic</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Take responsibility Put the effort in Engage, attend Willingness to develop academic skills Do the minimum Importance of L4 <p>1.2 As perceived by student</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask for support Attend Study independently Participate Put the effort in Take personal responsibility Diversity of Student Body <p>1.3 Importance of ‘studentness’ in first year</p>
<p>2. Expectations of Academics' Role - What does it mean to be an Academic?</p> <p>2.1 As perceived by academic</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approachable and reliable Facilitate the specific needs of L4 students Push them to develop academic learning skills Supportive Be an effective teacher and engage students <p>2.2 As perceived by student</p> <p>2.2.1 Who’s who?</p> <p>2.2.2 Expectations of academics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approachable/contactable Enthusiastic Knowledgeable/expert in their field/practitioner in their field Professional/able to teach/-competent Support To know who I am

3. Newbie Expectations and Experiences

3.1 Pre-entry sources

3.2 Open days

3.3 Tuition fees

As justification to meet basic expectations

Providing a sense of entitlement

3.4 Pre-entry Experiences

3.5 Experiences of learning

Past educational experiences – school/college/teacher

4. Post Entry Experiences - Reality Changes

4.1 Not all academics are the same

4.2 Concerns for the future

4.3 Assessment and feedback shaping expectations

4.4 Transition

Academic

Personal

Socialisation period

4.5 Not all students are the same

4.6 Size

As a barrier

Shaping expectations

4.7 Support

Fear of the unknown

Insecurity

Not coping

Reassurance

5. Sources Shaping Academic Expectations of Relationships and Roles

5.1 Ideological commitments

5.2 Diversity of student body

5.3 External Environment, tuition fees and ‘the good old days’

5.4 Size

6. The Experience

6.1 As perceived by academic

6.1.1 Cause of Breach

Behavioural outcome

Emotional outcome

6.1.2 Cause of Fulfilment

Behavioural outcome

Emotional outcome

6.2 As perceived by student

6.2.1 Cause of Breach

- Support & guidance
- Role of the academic
- Lack of equity and fairness

- Behavioural Outcome
- Emotional Outcome

6.2.2 Cause of Fulfilment

- Support & guidance
- Role of the academic
- When they know me

- Behavioural Outcome
- Emotional Outcome

6.3 State of the relationship

- Identity
- Reciprocal
- Consistency
- Fairness
- Respect

Summaries in the form of generalisation statements were then produced. Generalisations, as Hatch (2002) asserts, are “statements that express relationships found in the particular contexts under investigation” (p. 159) and are useful as they provide “a syntactic device for ensuring that what has been found can be communicated to others” (p. 159). The decision to depict the generalisations as speech and thought comments from figures (see figures 5.7 – 5.10) was based in part on the future utility of presenting the data to interested parties in an easy to understand format which reflected the interpretation of the data; thus their purpose was to communicate my interpretations of the data to the reader in a manner which was both engaging and also to depict the common themes which were drawn from across the interviews. Interpretative researchers are often said to be story tellers who construct narratives with beginnings, middles and ends (Denzin, 1994; Van Maanen, 1988) and these summaries were useful in recognising that the participants did have a story to tell.

This section has described the data analysis methods used within this doctoral study and has justified the use of exploratory statistical analysis (quantitative surveys) and template analysis

(qualitative data). It has explained how the coding template was constructed, comprising of codes representing themes identified in the data through meticulous reading and rereading of the texts.

4.8 Research Quality

The preceding sections within this chapter have explicitly described and justified the choice of research design and methods used within the study. Their choice was determined by both the aims and the context of the research and also recognised the need to address quality criteria to ensure that the subsequent results and interpretations from the data will be accepted by policy makers and academics. This section will explicitly state the basis upon which this work should be judged and will demonstrate how it has met these criteria.

As demonstrated previously an interpretive approach to data analysis was taken and criteria appropriate to the evaluation of qualitative data must be applied to judge it. Unlike in the pure quantitative community where there is some agreement on the criteria which can be used to judge ‘good research’ *i.e.* validity, reliability, generalisability and objectivity (Winter, 2000), there exists a “criteriology debate” (Symon & Cassell, 2012, p. 204) within qualitative circles, with a proliferation of different criteria. Furthermore, the anti-foundationalism of qualitative research proposes that any criterion is unwarranted and unnecessary as, within the interpretative tradition, truth is always something unfinished, objective knowledge is untenable, thus confounding the possibility of quality criteria (Sandberg, 2005; Symon & Cassell, 2012).

However qualitative researchers are far from united in rejecting criteria outright; Tracey (2010) puts forward three particular reasons for the need to have specific assessment criteria for qualitative work; pedagogical, to help us learn and develop our practice; developmental, to encourage researchers to learn from each other; and political, to persuade other researchers as to the validity of qualitative research. The question to be answered is ‘what criteria should be used?’ as measures from different paradigms are not necessarily appropriate. Sandberg (2005) illustrates this by acknowledging that “the problem with embracing positivistic criteria when justifying the results of interpretative approaches is that they are not in accordance with the underlying ontology and epistemology” (p. 43). The interpretative approach that I have taken is one that views the world as a human world; one that is experienced and related to a

conscious subject who rejects the existence of an objective knowable reality outside of the human mind, therefore it would be capricious to justify knowledge produced within this paradigm using traditional positivist criteria. If a rejection of the traditional criteria is made then different criteria are needed to justify the knowledge claims made in this work. Furthermore, the aim of this study is to ensure that research findings are authentic, and whilst it is recognised that there is no perfect truth, it is important to ensure a focus on ensuring trustworthiness to satisfy that the study is meaningful and worthwhile (Bush, 2012).

There exist many lists of quality criteria which can be used to assess qualitative research. These can be seen to be derived from methodological or epistemological principles and empirical analysis of reported practices *i.e.* actual assessment criteria employed in the field (Symon & Cassell, 2012). Probably the earliest list of criteria produced was that constructed by Guba and Lincoln (1989) whose inspiration for a set of criteria came from the recognition that positivistic criteria were not appropriate for ‘naturalistic inquiry’ and who subsequently produced alternative criteria which were direct substitutes for the positivistic criteria that they had wanted to replace! Many others have since generated lists which provide guidance to best practices for qualitative research (Bochner, 2000; Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Seale, 1999; Yardley, 2000). The criteria used within this research are those proposed by Tracey’s (2010) list of universal qualitative assessment criteria that is appropriate for all qualitative research as it focuses on common end goals rather than ‘variant mean methods.’ These criteria are useful as they allow for quality of output, process and performance.

Table 13 shows the eight criteria for ‘Excellent Qualitative Research’ as identified by Tracey (2010) and how they have been demonstrated in this study.

Table 4.11 Criteria Adopted to Ensure Quality of Research

Criteria for Quality (End Goal)	Means/Practices/Methods Through which Criteria were Achieved
Worthy Topic	Topic as described and outlined in Introduction is of its time, relevant and of interest.
Rich Rigour	The study has used sufficient and appropriate data collection and analysis processes in the time available (see Figure 17 and 18 pgs. 114-115) and it provides for meaningful and significant claims to be made concerning pedagogic relationships.
Sincerity	Self-Reflexivity has been demonstrated within Chapter 3 and the research shows honesty and transparency about potential researcher-bias. Transparency has also been marked in Figure 16 which shows an Audit Trail of how the research was conducted.
Credibility	Thick description of case study setting allows readers to reach their own conclusion concerning context and setting of research. The past experiences of the researcher allows for tacit knowledge to be demonstrated. Member reflections – allowing for sharing and dialoguing with participants about the study's findings and checking with them concerning authenticity of data so that they are recognised as true and accurate. The interviewing style adopted also allowed for an element of continuous member checking as the main points given by respondents were summarised after key questions before moving on to ensure that participants were happy with the researcher's understanding of their comments.
Resonance	Transferability is achieved as the setting under study has been described in detail allowing for readers to transfer the findings due to shared characteristics.
Significant contribution	This research makes a small theoretical contribution by using the conceptual apparatus of Psychological Contracting in the context of the student-academic relationship in HE at an undergraduate level. Future research opportunities have been identified as a result of the study (see Chapter 5). This research has practical significance in the sense that its findings can inform academic professionals as to the expectations of current students with regards to role requirements and pedagogic relationships. Management of expectations can then be addressed to aid student academic adjustment.
Ethical	Procedural ethics were adhered to throughout (see section 3.9) Ethical decisions were based upon the particularities of the case and particular attention was given to relational ethics due to the nature of the study and its setting and the researcher's position within the organisation.
Meaningful Coherence	The study achieves what it purports to be about; it uses methods and procedures that fit its stated goals and meaningfully interconnects the literature with research question and findings.

(Adapted from Tracey, 2010, p. 840)

Additional challenges may be said to exist regarding quality in this research as mixed methods were used in the collection of the data. However, as explained in section 3.4.2 the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods has been justified and has brought about greater rigour to the study, and credibility, since it allowed for methodological triangulation as the methods were mixed so as to corroborate one against the other and the use of a range of participants again allowed for improved credibility via data checking.

This section has demonstrated how quality has underpinned all research undertaken within this study. It is suggested that this work be judged through “pragmatic validation by its relevance to and use by those to whom it is presented; their perspective and actions joined to the [researcher’s] perspective and actions” (Patton, 1990, p. 485).

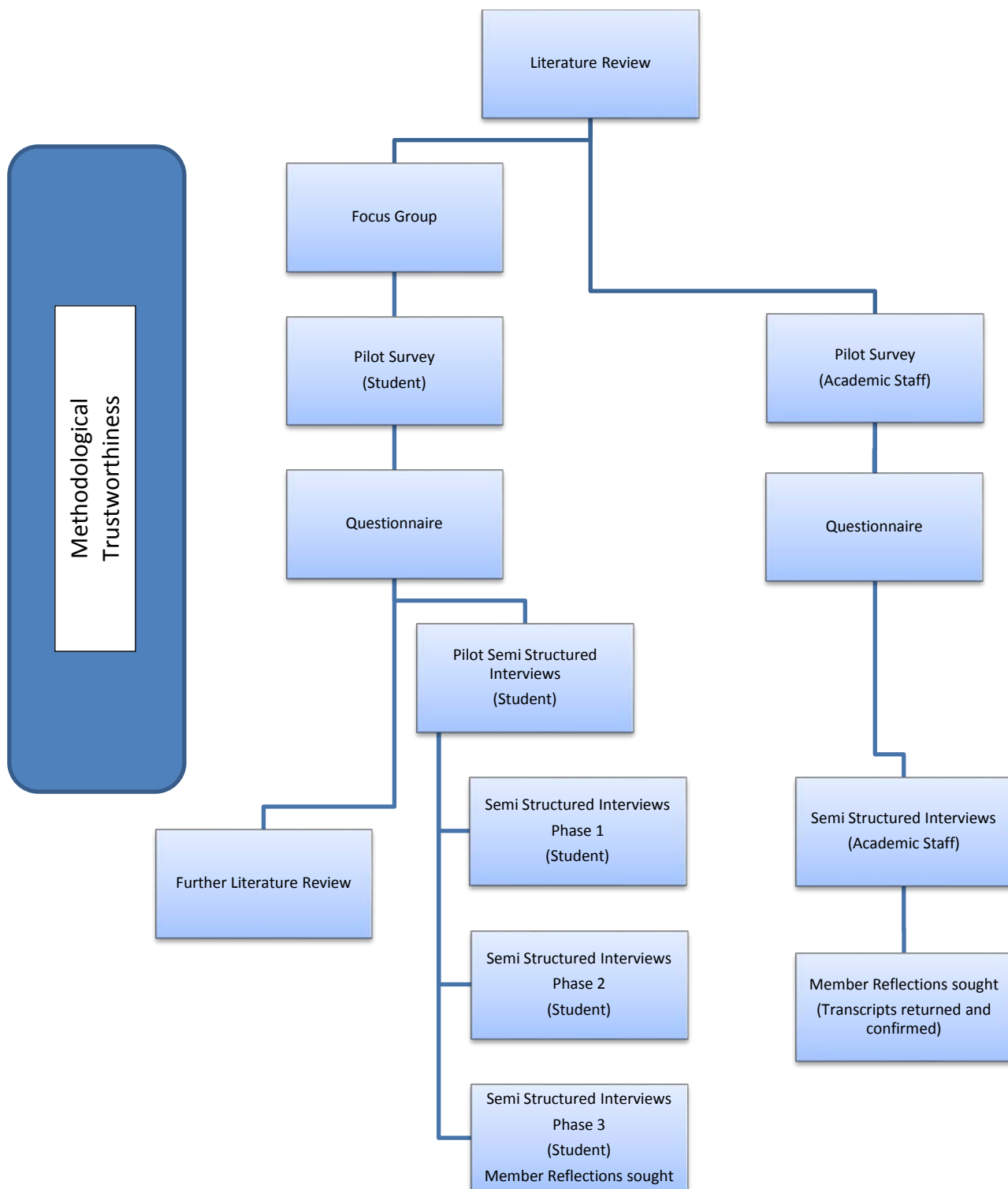
4.9 Ethical Considerations

This study shares “an intense interest in personal views and circumstances” (Stake, 2008, p. 140). The participants whose opinions and feelings are expressed within this research could be at risk of exposure and embarrassment as well as having their professionalism and integrity criticised and questioned should the reporting of the research be lacking in any way. As Tietze (2012) states “fieldwork, in particular [those] studies set in one’s employing organization or such like, is ‘up close and personal’ (p. 57). There are therefore a number of ethical issues which need to be taken into consideration throughout this research process to ensure that a secure and ethical environment is created in which the research can take place (Busher & James, 2012).

Firstly, in accordance with the university’s Ethics Policy, participation in the research was on the basis of informed consent and on a voluntary basis. Participants were informed that they had the right to withdraw at any time and all personal information in the report was kept confidential. Research conversations and other recorded information were stored securely⁷ both during and at the end of the project. Organisational consent was sought from the university at the outset and the Research Organisation Consent form was signed and returned and submitted to the School Ethics Committee (Appendix 7). Individual consent was also

⁷ Hard copies of transcripts were stored in a locked drawer and soft copies held on a computer hard drive were password protected.

Figure 4.7 Research Inquiry Audit Trail



sought from all respondents (see Appendices 8 and 9) and at the start of the interviews the aims of the research were restated and assurances made about anonymity and confidentiality.

As mentioned previously (section 4.2) my role and identity in the research process was both relevant and significant but potentially ethically problematic. As in all academic inquiry meaningful engagement and understanding between the researcher and the researched can only happen when “a degree of closeness, understanding, trust and openness is developed” (Tietze, 2012, p.58) which can be achieved when a researcher is familiar with participants and the organisation in which the research takes place. However this also raises questions about objectivity and authenticity of the research and can pose ethical dilemmas such as in the use of incidental data. Throughout the process with academic colleagues I had the issue of ensuring that lines were clearly drawn between chats and ‘data’ so as to ensure trust and openness. I chose not to use any material gained from informal conversations as I felt that this would be an abuse of access and a betrayal of trust from colleagues.

Powney and Watts (1987) also suggest that interviewees should be fully informed about the objectives and purpose of the research as this leads to improved research. Silverman (2000), however, suggests that this can contaminate a study and that a lengthy introduction to the research enquiry with peers could lead to a discussion of the issues as opposed to ‘getting on’ with the interview itself (Platt, 1981). I chose to fully inform academic staff participants of the purpose of the research and also gave them access to interview transcripts and sought their reflection as a method of ensuring quality within the research process and also to ensure that the research was transparent.

With students there were similar issues to contend with especially with the potential power imbalance which exists between them and myself as a member of academic staff. “Relational ethics involve an ethical self-consciousness in which researchers are mindful of their character, actions and consequences on others” (Tracey, 2010, p. 847). In order to ensure that I operated in a relationally ethical manner students were invited to take part in the survey and interviews and were fully informed of the purposes of the research. I did not give the interview transcripts back to students for member reflection although in their final interview I checked with them comments made in earlier interviews to minimise any misinterpretations. My justification for not allowing students access to their transcripts was in line with my phenomenological philosophical stance: I wished to remove the possibility that if they had

sight of their previous comments then this might influence their perception of their experience at that moment in time. Also, in terms of analysis, it was important that I was able to capture the difference in expectations over the period of the research. Ethical considerations also included exiting the data collection phase with student participants. Over the year I had developed a relationship with the students and reciprocity was important to me. I did not want them to feel exploited or abandoned by a quick withdrawal from the collection phase (Creswell, 2007). I therefore reiterated to students how this research was going to be used and represented and offered them the opportunity to look at the data before it was finalised. No student asked to see a copy of the final transcripts.

Validity and integrity of the data was maintained throughout the research process due to the genuine and authentic interest that I had in the experiences of the research participants, resulting in my commitment to accurately and adequately represent their experiences (Corbin Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). I was aware that my perceptions might be clouded by my personal experience but within my interpretation of the data and through presenting my account back to the researched I demonstrated sensitivity and honesty and remained “ethically attuned” (Willig, 2013, p. 26) in my judgements.

To conclude, significant emphasis has been placed upon conducting an ethical exploration consistent with the importance placed on the researcher’s positionality within the research process.

4.10 Research Limitations

The choice of semi-structured interviews as a data collection method within a phenomenological approach could be seen as problematic. As Silverman (2013) suggests, the use of interviews within qualitative research results in “manufactured” data rather than data which is “found” in the “field” (p. 31), as many participants will give an account differently depending on the intended audience. Initially I had wanted to capture the experiences of students and academic staff through the use of a personal research diary, as I agreed broadly with the arguments presented by Conway and Briner (2005) that an ‘open’ diary approach would allow participants to record/report examples of missed or exceeded expectations as and when they occurred without interference from the researcher. However, when asked, the

participants overwhelmingly rejected the use of a 'blog'/'open' diary and preferred semi-structured interviews. As a consequence I decided to use this method so as to avoid a potential non-response scenario and also semi-structured interviews did allow for quicker results than those that could be gained through observation which ensured that the research could be completed within the time scales imposed by the constraints of a DBA.

As students were self-selected to a certain extent for the qualitative part of the research the sample is probably biased in favour of the better motivated/more conscientious students and, as Kypri *et al.* (2011) point out, this may skew some of the findings. However, in order to follow ethical procedures, the need to avoid coercion and to ensure proper informed consent, I was unable to further approach other students directly. Ideally the study should be replicated with a group of students who do not volunteer for the sample initially but who may be prepared to participate for an incentive.

4.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the methodology of this research and justified the adoption of an interpretivist approach. The research approach outlined in this chapter is consistent with research designs recommended for gathering data on dynamic, experiential and interactive service processes such as education (Clewes, 2003, p. 76).

The role of the researcher and how it may impact upon both the collection and analysis of data has been discussed extensively. Ontological and epistemological principles have been addressed and reasons given for the phenomenological approach taken within a mixed method data collection case study research design. The research strategy is inductive in nature and criteria has been suggested and applied which ensure the credibility and quality of the research undertaken. The research process itself has been completed in an ethical manner and is transparent.

CHAPTER 5

Findings, Analysis, Synthesis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the quantitative surveys and the qualitative semi-structured interviews from both academic and student participants. As discussed previously in section 4.7.1, the quantitative data will be subject to descriptive statistics to explore relationships between variables, remembering that a statistically significant relationship does not in itself imply causality, and this then further informs the analysis of the qualitative research. The chapter will specifically present and analyse findings and synthesise these with existing literature in order to better understand and inform further the importance of managing expectations.

Findings from the quantitative research will be presented initially followed by the findings from the qualitative research. Figure 5.1 provides details of when student expectation data was captured and shows the objectives of the research concerning the student expectation journey through recording their experiences. Figure 5.2 presents similar detail of when academic expectation data was captured and its objectives.

Figure 5.1 Record of Student Data Capture Dates and the Objectives of Sessions

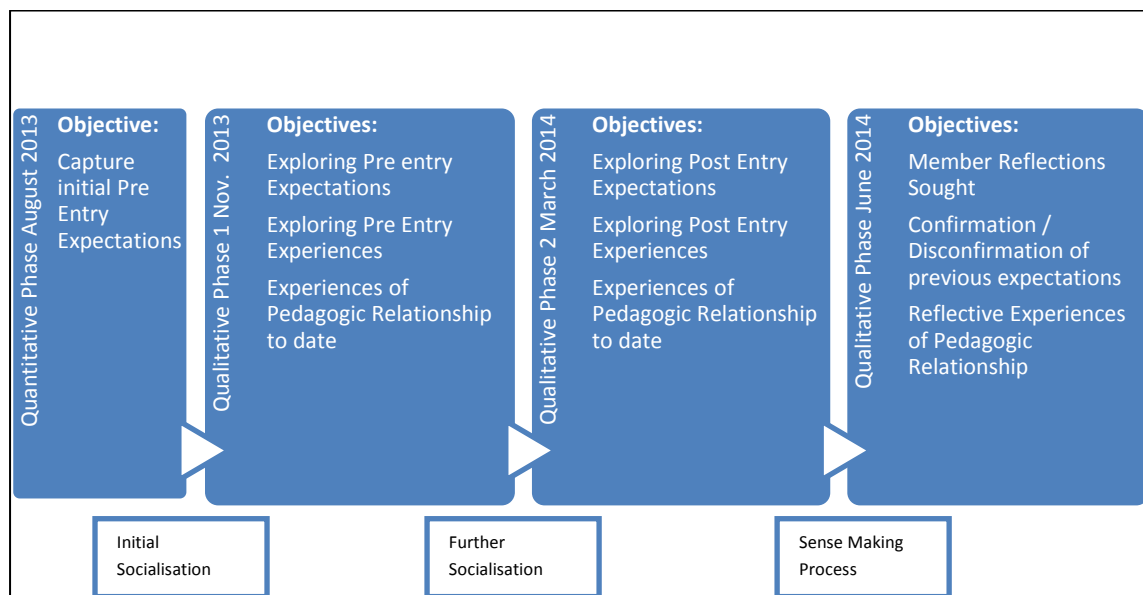
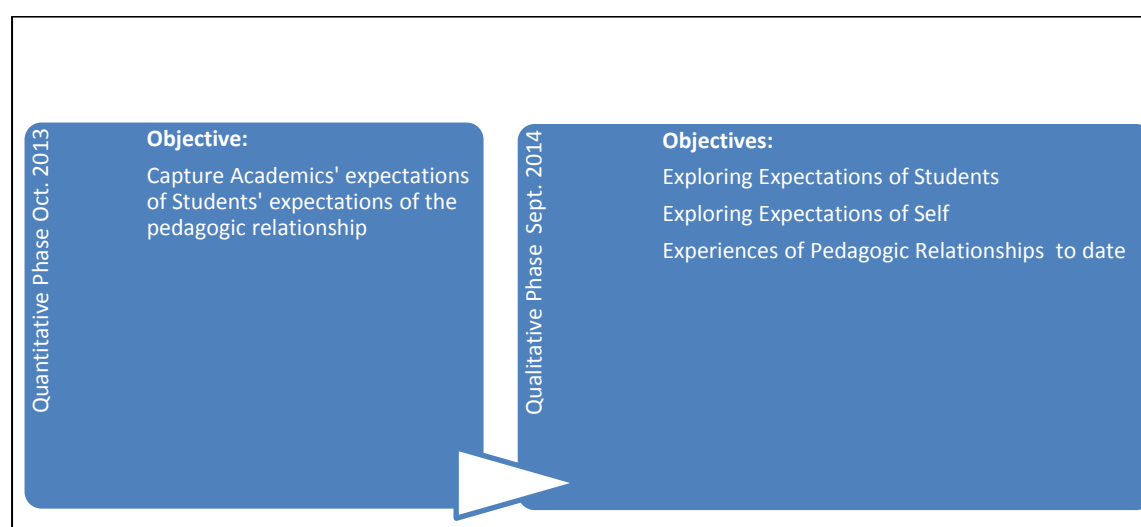


Figure 5.2 Record of Academic Data Capture Dates and the Objectives of Sessions



Results of the quantitative data from both students and academics will be presented simultaneously to allow for ease of comparison with the expectations of academics' role and the importance of these expectations preceding expectations of students' role and the importance of these expectations.

The results from the analysis of the quantitative data informed the generalisations, themes and sub-themes (see section 5.3.1 and 5.3.2) of the qualitative data. As the qualitative findings unfold, results will be compared with those of extant literature. Illustrative quotes will be used to exemplify themes and demonstrate coding, and where necessary these may have been edited in line with Emerson, Fretz and Shaw's recommendations (2011) to allow for readability, comprehensibility and anonymity. Quotations from the participants are referenced using the code numbers shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9 (see chapter 4).

Within the qualitative section, findings from the academics will be presented initially. A discursive account of the findings is presented with pertinent quotations provided as evidence for each theme and sub-theme discussed. Findings from the students will then be organised in chronological order. This is, in part, due to the longitudinal and contextual research design of the study and that, during the analysis of data, it became apparent that the expectations of students had developed over time, shaped and influenced by their lived experiences, and therefore it was important that this transition was recorded in a manner which reflected this.

5.2 Quantitative Data Analysis and Findings

5.2.1 Expectations of Academics and Importance of these Expectations

The expectations of academics and their importance were analysed from the perspective of both students and academics. A chi square analysis of the fifty nine responses demonstrated that expectations of tutors were independent of school type and also of previous qualifications, although some expectations of students' roles were dependent on their previous qualifications undertaken. There was no statistical evidence to suggest that expectations of tutors and the level of importance attached to them are gendered. This information was useful when compiling the nested sample for the semi-structured interviews as it suggests that the type of student used within the research will not cause significant response bias.

Exploratory data analysis was then conducted which showed that there was a strong statistical relationship between the expectancy constructs and the level of importance attached to them *i.e.* factors that have a high level of expectation associated with them also had a high level of importance and *vice versa*. This was the case for both academics and students with positive high correlations of 0.92 and 0.88 respectively based on Spearman's correlation coefficient.

These results can be plotted onto scatter diagrams (see Appendix 10) which can be divided into four quadrants (similar to that of a Boston Consulting Matrix, (Henderson, 1970)) such that

- Quadrant 1 = high expectation, high importance
- Quadrant 2 = high expectation, low importance
- Quadrant 3 = low expectation, high importance
- Quadrant 4 = low expectation, low importance

Analysing the scatter diagrams with respect to these quadrants resulted in the following matrix.

Figure 5.3 Matrix of Expectations and their Importance of Academic Constructs.

		EXPECTATIONS	
		HIGH	LOW
IMPORTANCE	HIGH	<div>1</div> <div> STUDENT <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Approachable *Fair *Honest *Communication *Subject *Explain *Motivational </div> <div> ACADEMIC <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Approachable *Fair *Honest *Communication *Subject *Explain *Punctual *Enthusiastic *Caring </div>	<div>2</div> <div> STUDENT <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Caring *Enthusiastic </div> <div> ACADEMIC <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Motivational </div>
	LOW	<div>3</div> <div> STUDENT <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Confident *Positive </div> <div> ACADEMIC <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Confident </div>	<div>4</div> <div> STUDENT <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Punctual *Business Experience *Know my Name *Conducting Research *Read Drafts *Challenging *Available *Humorous *Doctoral Qualification </div> <div> ACADEMIC <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Positive *Business Experience *Know my Name *Conducting Research *Available *Read Drafts *Challenging *Humorous *Doctoral Qualification </div>

Although this matrix is quite useful in itself, it was convenient to develop a further ‘measure’ of how similar or close student and university teachers were with respect to each construct and perhaps, more importantly how far apart they were, or distant, in certain constructs.

The ‘distance’ between students and university teachers can be indicated by the following formula:

$$\text{Rank Distance} = \sqrt{(et - es)^2 + (it - is)^2}$$

(expectation teacher – expectation student) + (importance teacher – important student)

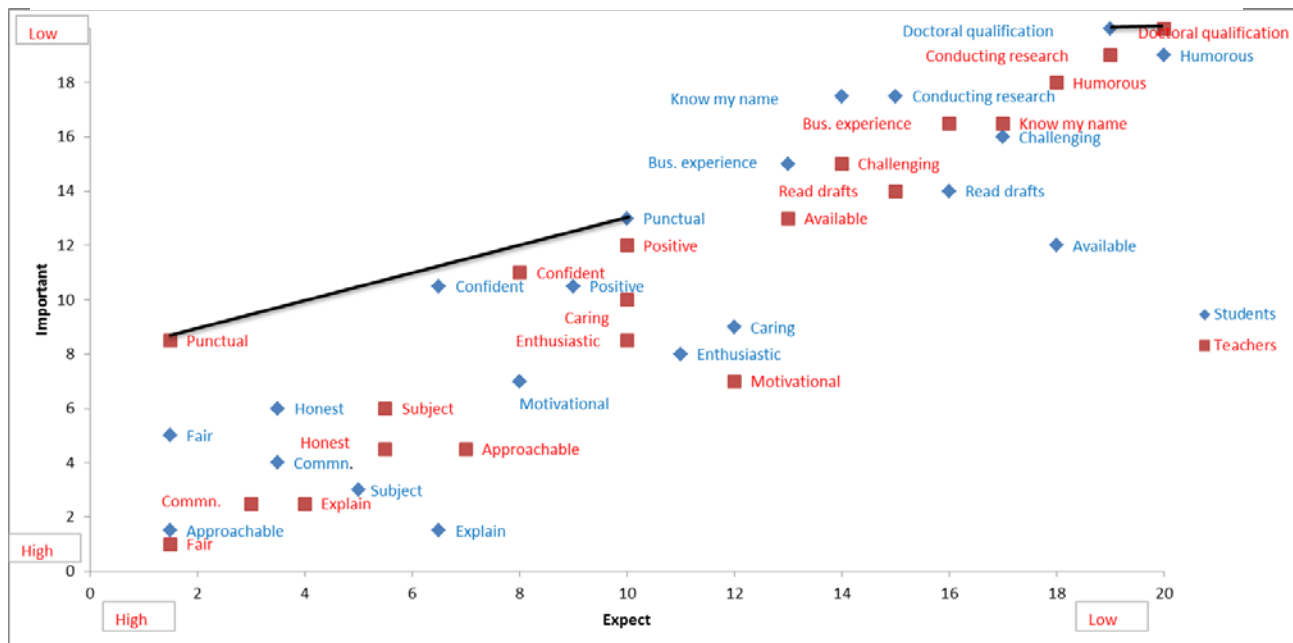
Applying this formula to each construct and then reordering these themes by distance results in the following table.

Table 5.1 Expectation Constructs of Academics and their Importance Ranked by Distance between Academics and Students.

<u>Construct</u>	<u>Distance</u>	<u>Construct Ranked by Distance</u>
Be punctual	9.62	1
Be approachable	6.26	2
Be available to answer questions outside of class/lecture time	5.10	3
Be conducting relevant research	4.27	4
Be fair	4.00	5.5
Be motivational	4.00	5.5
Have relevant business experience	3.35	7
Be challenging	3.16	8.5
Know my name	3.16	8.5
Have excellent subject knowledge	3.04	10
Be able to explain things well	2.69	11
Be honest	2.50	12
Be humorous	2.24	13.5
Be caring to individual needs	2.24	13.5
Be positive	1.80	15
Be confident	1.58	16.5
Have good communication skills	1.58	16.5
Be enthusiastic	1.12	18
Read drafts of my work	1.00	19.5
Have a doctoral qualification	1.00	19.5

From this table a scatter diagram of ‘Distance’ by academic expectation construal between students and academics (teachers) could be drawn and presented as Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4 Scatter Diagram of ‘Distance’ by Academic Expectation Construal between Students and Academics (Teachers)



Each one of the constructs in the scatter diagram (Figure 5.4) is represented by two points (one student and one university teacher). It is therefore possible to identify similarities and differences between the expectations, and the importance attached to these expectations between the two groups of respondents' construal by 'distance.' Two such distances have been indicated on the diagram – Punctual and Doctoral Qualification. It can be seen from this that students and university teachers are 'close' in relation to Doctoral Qualification *i.e.* students and academic's perceptions of students expectations do not expect their university teachers to have doctoral qualifications and also do not see it as important; this supports the results found in the 2015 Student Experience Survey (Buckley, Soilemetzidis & Hillman, 2015) where only 17% of participants considered being an active researcher as an important characteristic of an academic. Whereas they are 'distant' with regards to Punctual; where university teachers perceive that students will expect them to be punctual but students, in fact, do not.

The problem with this type of analysis is that it is tempting to concentrate only on those which have the largest 'distance' between them, indicating potentially the most contentious areas. However if used in conjunction with the matrix (Figure 5.3), looking at Quadrant 1 we can see that for students, three of their important expectations are within the top five ranked

constructs (approachable, fair and motivational) indicating some ‘distance’ between students and university teachers, and this is something that was further explored in the semi-structured interviews. What this statistical analysis does not show is why students and academics hold these expectations and why they are important. This information helped to inform the research questions within the semi-structured interviews as discussed in section 4.6.3.1.

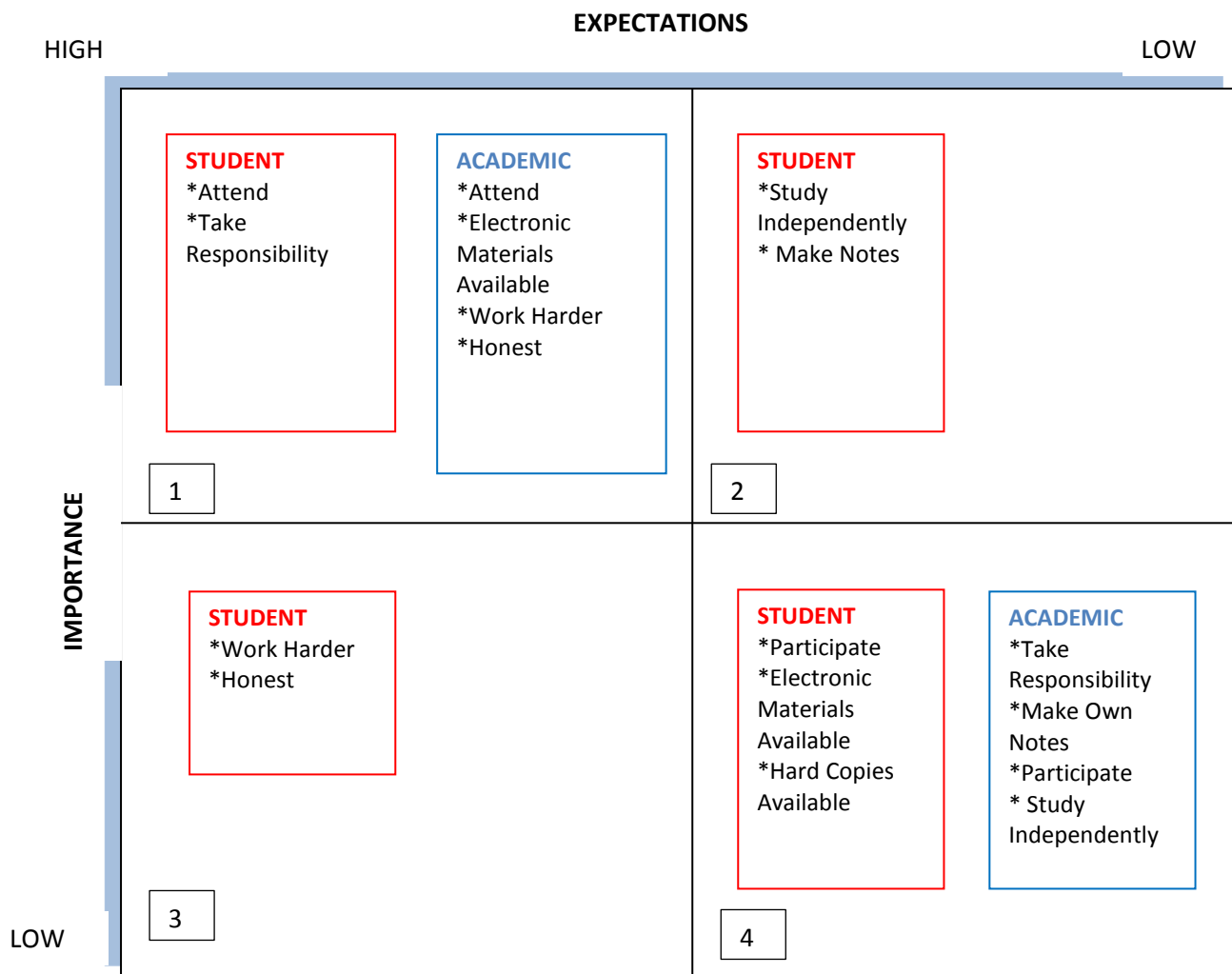
5.2.2 Expectations of Students and Importance of these Expectations

Expectations of students’ role and the importance of these expectations were then analysed from the perspective of both students and academics.

As before there was a strong statistical relationship between the constructs *i.e.* factors that had a high level of expectation associated with them also had a high level of importance and *vice versa*. This is the case for both university teachers and students with positive high correlations of 0.80 and 0.78 respectively.

These results were then analysed using the same procedure as that used for academic expectations and are presented in the matrix in Figure 5.5 (see Appendix 11 for scatter diagrams).

Figure 5.5 Matrix of Expectations and their Importance for Student Constructs



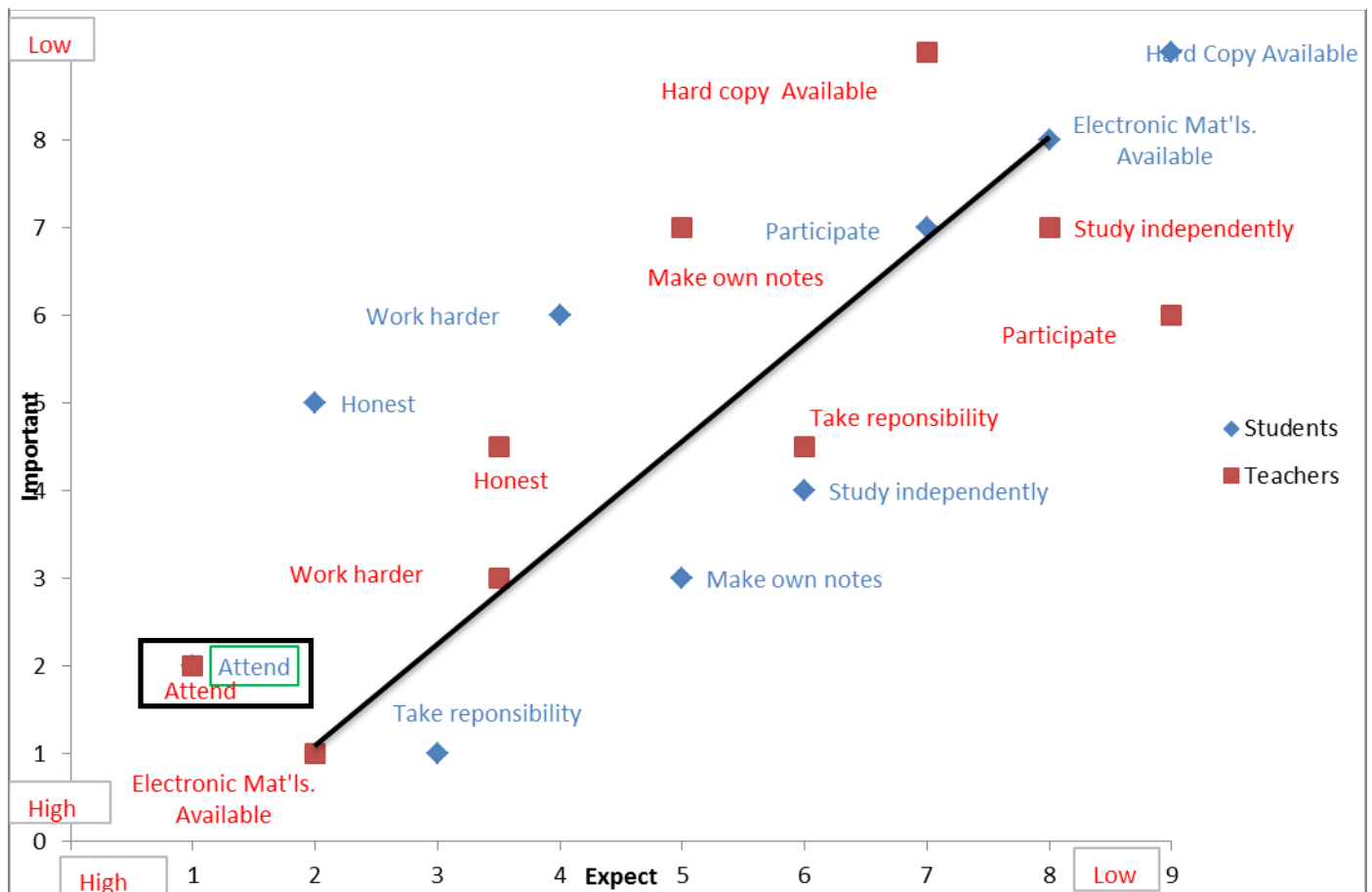
As with academic expectations, it was useful to ascertain how similar or close student and university teachers were with respect to each construct and, perhaps more importantly, how far apart they were, or ‘distant’, in certain constructs. Table 5.2 provides the results of this procedure.

Table 5.2 Expectation Constructs of Student and their Importance Ranked by Distance between Academics and Students.

<u>Construct</u>	<u>Distance</u>	<u>Construct Ranked by Distance</u>
Have materials made available to me electronically in advance of sessions	9.22	1
Take responsibility for my learning alongside my tutor	4.61	2
Have to make my own notes	4.00	3
Have to study more independently	3.61	4
Have to work harder than I did at school / college outside of taught sessions	3.04	5
Participate fully in lectures / seminars	2.24	6
Have materials made available to me in hard copy in advance of sessions	2.00	7
Be honest	1.58	8
Attend lectures and seminars whenever possible	0.00	9

From this table a scatter diagram of ‘Distance’ by student expectation construal between students and academics (teachers) could be drawn (Figure 5.6).

Figure 5.6 Scatter Diagram of ‘Distance’ by Student Expectation Construal between Students and Academics (Teachers)



Each one of the constructs in the scatter diagram is represented by two points (one student and one university teacher). It is therefore possible to identify similarities and differences between the expectations and the importance attached to these expectations between the two groups of respondents' construal by 'distance'. Two such distances have been indicated on the diagram – Attend and Electronic Materials Available. It can be seen from this that students and university teachers are 'close', indeed in total agreement, with the need to attend *i.e.* students and teachers' perceptions of students' expectations expect students to attend and see it as important. Whereas they are 'distant' with regards to the availability of electronic materials, where university teachers perceive that students will expect materials to be available and that it will be important to them, whereas students do not expect them to be available nor is it important to them.

The problem, as before, with this type of analysis is that it is tempting to concentrate only on those which have the largest 'distance' between them, indicating potentially the most contentious areas.

With regards to student role this quantitative research suggested that students' expectations of themselves and the importance that they attach to these expectations were lower than university teachers anticipated. There was also 'distance' between some of the constructs such as 'take responsibility for one's own learning.' A further distance existed with 'have to study more independently' where both students and university teachers regarded this as a low expectation of themselves and yet it is often cited by academics as one of the main qualities they would encourage in students in order to achieve success.

It is important to reiterate at this stage the purpose of the quantitative study. It was designed to capture the expectations of the academic and student role prior to entry to university. These findings informed the selection of interview questions and were explored further within the semi-structured interviews. In one sense they acted as quick poll to mark which expectations were of interest and how important they were to students and academics at that specific moment in time. Exploratory statistical analysis has allowed for reasonable conclusions to be drawn as to what expectations existed regarding the pedagogical relationship and the level of importance attached to them prior to students starting their programmes.

In summary, these results have given positive confirmation, supported by empirical evidence, that students and academics have specific expectations of their roles within the pedagogic relationship. It has developed a landscape in which the qualitative data can now be discussed, giving voice to the constructs. In common with previous literature (Koskina, 2011; Sanders *et al.*, 2000; Voss *et al.*, 2007) it has been shown that it is important for students, prior to entry to university, that academics are approachable, enthusiastic, knowledgeable, have good communication skills and are able to explain things (good teaching skills). Academics have similar perceptions of what they believe students to expect and regard as important. Neither academics nor students had the expectation that there would be opportunities to have drafts of their work read (indicating support), nor did they see this as important which contradicts the findings from Taylor and Bedford's study (2004) which suggested that students did expect lecturers to assist students more in their studies and provide them with appropriate and timely feedback.

The next section presents the findings of qualitative research undertaken after entry.

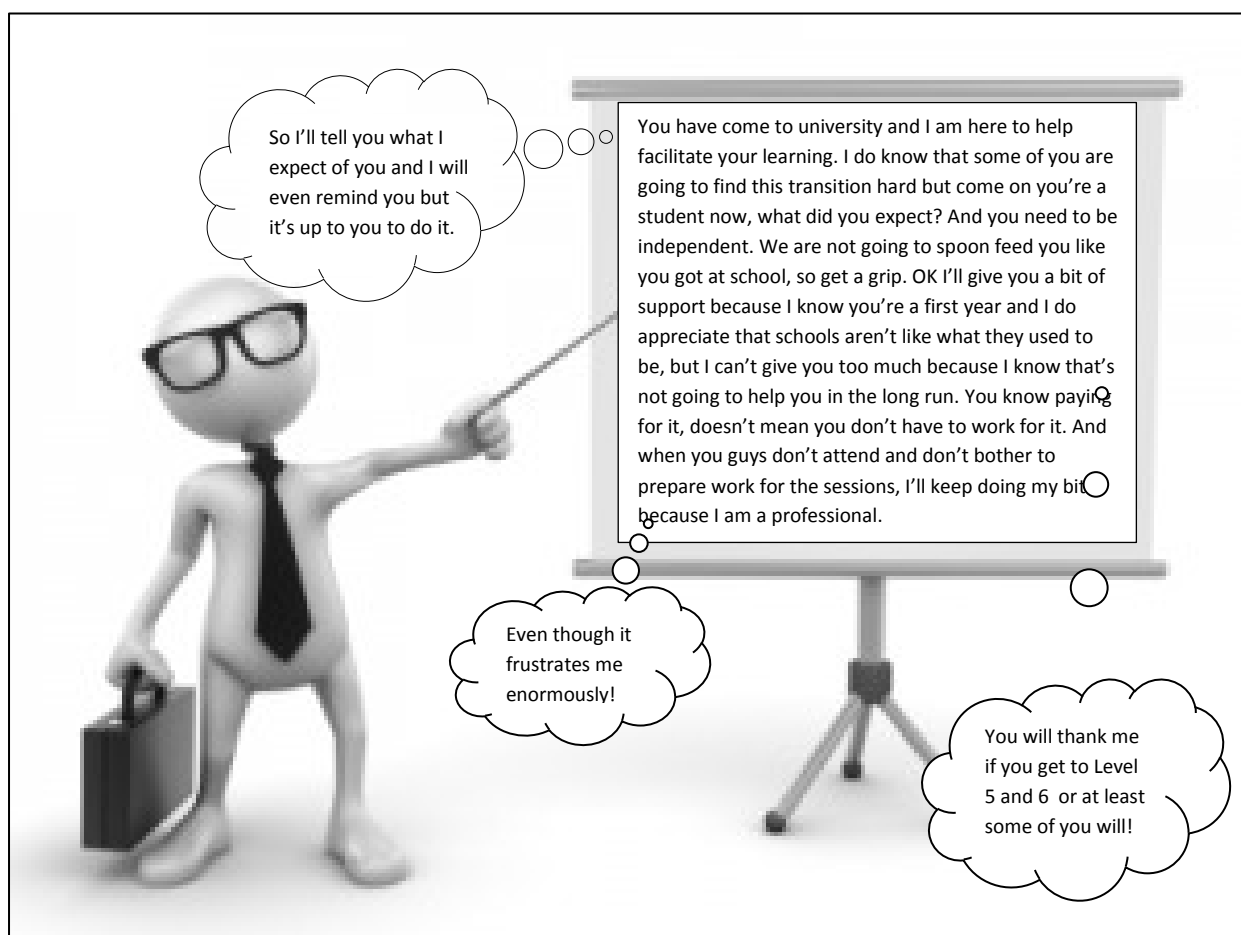
Each of the following sections commences with a generalisation, drawing upon the principles of typological analysis (Hatch 2002), and then discusses the findings in detail on a theme-by-theme basis.

5.3 Qualitative Data Analysis and Findings

5.3.1 Findings, Analysis, Synthesis: Academic

Figure 5.7 generalises the relationship that academics experience with their first year students (their collective voice). The generalisation has been produced from analysis of the themes and sub-themes.

Figure 5.7 Generalisation of Academic Experiences and Expectations of the Pedagogic Relationship



The themes and subthemes discussed concerning academics are detailed in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Themes and Sub-themes: Academic

Theme	Sub-themes
What does it mean to be an Academic?	<p>Be Approachable and Reliable</p> <p>Facilitate the specific needs of L4 students</p> <p>Push students to develop academic learning skills</p> <p>Be Supportive</p> <p>Be an effective teacher and engage students</p>
Sources shaping Academic Expectations?	<p>Ideological Commitments</p> <p>Diversity of Student Body</p> <p>External Environment, Tuition Fees and the Good Old Days</p> <p>Size</p>
What does it mean to be a Student?	<p>Take responsibility</p> <p>Put the effort in</p> <p>Engage, attend</p> <p>Be willing to develop academic skills</p> <p>Do the minimum</p> <p>Appreciate the importance of L4</p>
The Experience	<p>Causes of Breach</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioural Outcome • Emotional Outcome <p>Causes of Fulfilment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioural Outcome • Emotional Outcome

5.3.1.1 What Does it Mean to be an Academic?

With regards to their role within the pedagogic relationship, most academics acknowledged that their role in the first year was critical in ensuring that students became ‘fit for purpose’ and that “the first year, perhaps it could be the most important year” (A3) due to the need to “develop” (A3) students and “instil a sense of capability within the student so that they are able to undertake further independent research and critical understanding away from the classroom” (A9). Some academics did empathise more with first year students than with other years recognising that “first years are going through so much” (A8) and that for some students it was difficult to reconcile the demands of their academic work with the challenges of independent living. As a consequence most academics felt that they provided ‘over and above’ what is expected of them within their role as a teacher with first year students – in some cases putting so much effort into engaging and supporting the students that “it seems like I am killing myself in front of them” (A3).

Many also felt that an important aspect of their role was to support and guide students and that the first year was as much about developing “the skill of the learner” (A3) as delivering learning outcomes and goals. This supports Tinto (1999) and others (Jansen & van der Meer, 2012; Kift, 2008; Kuh *et al.*, 2008) who argue that the first year at university should be “understood as a developmental year” (p. 9) in which students gain the necessary skills and attributes needed to succeed and learn in later years. “I don’t expect that in the first year they will be fully independent, it’s like a learning curve, so the lecturer needs to make this known” (A5). Academics recognised that there was a need to facilitate this transition as not all students will enter their first year with the cultural practices to allow them to succeed. This supports Thomas’ findings (2002) that some students will feel like a “fish out of water” upon entry to university with low “academic preparedness” and poor understanding of the “academic experience.” As one academic commented, “I think in the first year without a successful transition you set some students up to struggle and I don’t think it has to be a struggle” (A6).

The data suggested the academics were learner-centred (Zepke & Leach, 2005), recognising the need to help students make this transition with some however specifically seeing this as a short term intervention, “there’s no compromise, you know, in the academic robustness and in the integrity, but they need to be trained” (A5). This supports Zepke and Leach’s (2007)

findings where teachers who focused on giving respect to students, had an interest in their subject, were consistently fair in their dealings and were willing to adapt their teaching style to assist student learning had a “substantial direct effect on student outcomes” (p. 656). “If I don’t see students progressing I’ll try a different approach or a different example or recommend alternative reading or revisit a taught book if that’s what needs to be done” (A6).

However an academic has a different role to that of a high school teacher and it was important for academics not to be “breathing down their [student] backs” (A9) and that independent study skills must be acquired for future success. This suggests that academics have a traditional habitus of university pedagogy which is deeply entrenched and informs their practice. This reinforces Thomas’ (2002) point that “pedagogy is not an instrument of teaching, so much as of socialisation and reinforcing status” (p. 431). It also assumes an assimilationist approach, that the student will ultimately fit to the institution, which has been noted as at odds with contemporary student expectations (Zepke & Leach, 2005) and those studies where it has been suggested that where institutions try to take into consideration students’ learning preferences and learning styles, academic and student experience outcomes may improve (Lizzio, Wilson & Simons, 2002; Laing & Robinson, 2003) and “acculturative stress” is reduced (Saenz, Marcoulides, Junn & Young, 1999, p. 201). In other words, whilst most academics recognise the importance of the first year context and are prepared to adapt their teaching to the specific requirements of this group it is only for the purposes of “training” (A5) students so that they are able to integrate at a future date into the existing and prevailing academic culture. As one academic stated there can be “no compromise in the academic robustness and in the integrity” (A5) which is required from students at university. Academics regarded the lack of student preparedness as something to be ‘fixed’ rather than something to inform their teaching strategies. Independent study skills could be seen as a “threshold concept” (Meyer & Land, 2006) which presents an important challenge for the academic within their curriculum design as an understanding by the student of what the concept means can potentially be a powerful transformative point in the student’s pedagogic experience (Land, Cousin, Meyer & Davies, 2006).

5.3.1.2 Sources Shaping Academic Expectations

This section discusses those sources which were found to shape academic expectations of the pedagogic relationship.

5.3.1.2.1 Ideological Commitments

In support of Thompson and Bunderson's proposal (2003) that psychological rewards accrue for those whose work reinforces their ideology, the data shows that academics have a need to defend and promote professional autonomy and standards. Thus their obligations to the students are grounded in the provision of a cause they highly value, "I felt valued as an academic in terms of being able to deliver teaching that was making a difference" (A9) and not just on transactional matters, "These are people. This is their life" (A6). These obligations seem to have arisen out of their expectations of what a professional academic should deliver in the teaching of students, "So I'll sit at night sometimes reading notes to make sure I'm fully ready" (A2). Yes, they are paid by the university to educate students and this therefore obligates them transactionally to the student but their responsibilities also arise because of their ideological commitment to their profession, "I should feel motivated to do a really good job because of my professional status, that it's the right thing to do and that, if it goes horribly wrong or it doesn't meet certain standards, those standards should come from my sense of professionalism, not a sense of 'the customer's disappointed'" (A1) and a sense of duty, "I think we've got a very important role because those students then go out to society and fulfil important roles and I think we have a certain responsibility" (A2). These results support James (2002), Bunderson (2001) and Holland (1989) who have all argued for the importance of professional obligation for academics' expectations.

It would thus appear that the professional ideology of these academics within the institution used in this study consists of a common *a priori* set of roles, rights and obligations which shape their PC with the students, consistent with the argument presented by Bunderson (2001). The type of PC they hold with the student could be seen as an "ideology infused contract" (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003) where they are willing to go beyond perceived normal behaviour in order to support their passion for the championed cause of educating

young adults. As one student commented, “she [an academic] was replying on weekends and everything and I wasn’t expecting that, I wouldn’t expect them to reply on weekends because obviously that’s their time off” (S2).

However when academics described what it means to be an academic (as detailed in the previous section) they did not mention explicitly a ‘professional identity’ or the vocational element of their role which perhaps suggests that on a day-to-day basis they do not see themselves as working within a ‘professional code of conduct.’

5.3.1.2.2 Diversity of Student Body

Although there were differences in academics’ gender, culture, age and vocational backgrounds there was considerable consistency across the academics concerning their expectations of the type of students attending university. Academics mentioned three types of students. The ‘good’ students (*i.e.* engaged, who attended and prepared) who were seen to be in the minority by some; a substantial ‘middle group’ where “students are partially engaged in the learning, attending lectures and seminars, doing the directed study but the independent study and the next layer does just not exist for them” (A6) and a ‘bottom end’ who “back out of” learning (A2) and are “disengaged from the process” (A6). As a consequence of such diversity academics had been forced to take a more “pragmatic” (A1) approach and “trim [their] cloth” (A1) in terms of the type of activities which they set students: “It’s partly self-protection, self-preservation that if I can ask less of them, then the activity itself can take place just within the seminar and we can all engage, we can all participate and everybody gets something out of it” (A7).

This supports the notion expressed by Conway and Briner (2005) that the PC is a dynamic exchange process where outcomes of the exchange at one moment in time influence subsequent exchanges in a different cycle. The data suggests that because a number of students in previous cohorts had not fulfilled their perceived obligations as students, academics observe a loss of balance within the relationship (Shore & Barksdale, 1998) and have reciprocated in kind to the new exchanges being offered. In other words, due to the perceived lack of effort exerted by students they feel less obliged to reciprocate which aligns with research on PCB.

5.3.1.2.3 External Environment, Tuition Fees and the Good Old Days

All academics also mentioned the impact that the wider environment had had upon affecting their expectations. There was mention of a past “golden age” (A1) where students had been more conscientious and prepared for the rigour of academia but that now “it just feels like it’s lost something” (A1). Some academics commented that they felt that this was due to “what they [students] were used to in their previous education which to some extent from my experience fairly recently is spoon fed and given every single thing that they need in order to carry out a task” (A8), leading to “disconnect” (A8) at university. This supports Jeffrey’s findings (2012) and others’ (Brinkworth *et al.*, 2009; Clinton, 2011; Jephcote, Salisbury & Rees, 2008; McQueen & Webber, 2009; Thomson, 2008) that L3 teaching, since 2000, has been “assessment driven rather than learning driven” resulting in a teacher-centred approach to pedagogy and students as “receptive learners” which is not seen as a suitable preparation style for a degree programme where students are expected to be “autonomous learners:”

I think an education system that doesn’t encourage thinking is a problem. And I don’t feel that some of the exam structures that they’ve had have encouraged thinking. I also don’t think that they have any sense of consequences. ‘Can I resit it? Can I do it again? Will you read this before I submit it?’ The finality of the submission of a piece of work seems to be an alien concept. Even when it’s an exam, there’s the, ‘Oh, I can resit it.’ And I just think that that has to come from something to do with qualification and education up to that point, because it’s not something that we would say (A6).

The questions on assessment yielded similar responses where academics were concerned with previous student experiences at L2 and L3, with a student expectation that drafts could be checked and redrafted with the support of an academic and that the focus on end assessment at GCSE and A Level had brought about an attitude that unless it was on the exam knowledge is extraneous and therefore need not be taught. This is consistent with Lane’s findings (2010) that students expect and desire to be given much more help from academics in terms of feedback and direction on how to complete assessments. It also corroborates Jeffrey’s work (2012) which highlights the significant differences in the role of assessment across the levels. At L3 students are supported and provided with specific and timely personalised formative feedback on assessed work, whereas at L4 formative feedback is given more in the format of general discussion comments and many students feel dissatisfied with the quantity and quality of feedback given.

A number of academics suggested that a consumerist ethos was to blame for changes in student expectations: “It’s a well-known problem now in the sector that they feel like they are customers” (A5), “starting to put a price tag on the session” (A1) and that because they are paying considerably more for their education than students have done in the past “there is the expectation that when they do attend lectures and seminars they are meaningful, that they do come out with some solid outcomes that they can actually think about, ‘a take-home message’ that they can pin their thoughts upon” (A9). This concurs with Naidoo and Jamieson’s point (2005) that if and when students start to perceive their role as ‘consumer’ they become disengaged and take minimal responsibility for their role in the learning process, that “there is a move towards higher expectations from the students which is not about being an inspiring teacher and providing them with the tools to help them, it’s about ‘You are solely responsible for making me get a good mark’ and helping them to do that in terms of giving them everything that they need to do that” (A8). There is a perception by the majority of academics that “the economic costs of these things ... has made the relationship a transaction” (A1). These views support Rolfe’s (2002) findings and suggest that the increase in tuition fees, although not totally responsible for changes in students’ expectations, do lend legitimacy to students’ views of the student/academic relationship as one of customer and provider.

However not all academics saw the consumerist model as necessarily being damaging to the relationship: “I think they are paying this money so we do have a duty as suppliers to look after the customers. I think it’s obviously more of a business relationship really. You’ve got that duty to them, they’re paying the money and you have to give them what they need, *etc.*” (A2). For this academic the nature of the relationship was now more transactional and the balance was weighted more on the academic than previously. This concurs with Little *et al.*’s research on student engagement which showed that staff in business schools are more likely to take a “customer-facing approach” (p. 39) when dealing with students and also substantiates the point that some academics accept this new development as they are conscious that most students will incur significant debt by going to university, in effect internalising the students’ legitimacy to receive ‘value for money’ (Rolfe, 2002).

A minority of academics also commented on the influence that parents now had on shaping the expectations of students, “the family, they pay a lot more money and they increase more pressure on the students, and to have them monitoring their performance on a more regular and more rigorous basis” (S3) and how they are more likely to intervene in their child’s

academic studies. This supports Jones' (2010) point concerning 'helicopter parents' who, because in many cases they are supporting the funding of their child's studies, are more involved in all aspects of the HE experience and "will act as their advocate in dealing with the institution" (p. 45).

5.3.1.2.4 Size

The size of operations at the university also had shaped academics' expectations of the pedagogic relationship. There was a consensus that, due to the size and success of the business school, "it's a good business" (A5), there existed a sense of separation from the academics and their students, "I feel entirely separated from the students that I teach on my modules simply because there's so damn many of them. They become a mass" (A1) and that as a result "it can be very stressful" (A2). "Size matters" (A2) to academics and the growth in student numbers was felt to have had a detrimental impact on relationships between academics and students, "I don't know all their names. I feel embarrassed about that" (A7) and between academics and academics. The "social relationship" (A1) had been lost and size presented a significant barrier to this exchange as individualised support and chats were discouraged, "also my fear is, if you did, they're going to tell everybody else and it wouldn't be possible to look at hundreds, it ends up with an unfair situation" (A7).

An additional issue of size is the impact that it has upon an academic's perceived ability to provide guidance and feedback. Academics perceive that it is expected of them to provide "hints ... and help with previous exam questions and give them answers" (A5) but that unlike in secondary education/FE this is not always possible or fair especially in the core modules due to the volume of students.

This section has noted that the factors shaping an academic's perspective of the pedagogic relationship are dynamic supporting the premise that the terms of the PC do change over a period of time and that this impacts upon academics' obligations to students (De Vos, De Stobbeleir & Meganck, 2009; McInnis, 2012).

5.3.1.3 What does it mean to be a student? (According to Academics)

Studentness is being “switched on, engaged, responsible, sensible” (A5). All academics were in agreement of their minimum expectations from students in the first year and they consisted of basic perfunctory attributes, “preparation, attendance and willingness to engage” (A2). Inputs as opposed to outputs were seen to be what mattered. These expected behaviours were made explicit to the students by most academics in their induction sessions, although some academics did not explicitly state what they would provide in return for these actions. These behaviours were understood as necessary for a mutually beneficial relationship and also concur with Regan’s (2012) claim that “the function of students in higher education is to participate fully with all aspects of their learning, to the best of their abilities” (p. 20). These expectations had been made known previously to students explicitly through the distribution of their Student Charter⁸ by their Programme Leader. The opportunity however for students to vocalise what they expected from their relationship with individual academics was dismissed by all but one of the academics, “Students, they don’t know what is their expectation” (A3).

The fulfilment of these basic expectations was also seen as crucial so that students themselves could meet their obligations to other students; as one lecturer commented: “If you are not attending the seminar, if you are passive in seminars, you are not only affecting your own experience, you’re affecting others, your fellow students, your fellow colleagues” (A3). This could be seen to suggest that students have commitments and obligations to other students within the pedagogical relationship, suggesting a multiplicity of PCs within education. Academics also expect students “to have an interest in the subject, over and above the choice of course simply being default so that it is a positive choice” (A1) and that they should be prepared to be responsible for their own learning and that “they should know what the lecturer wants” (A2).

There is a sense of bemusement regarding students’ lack of awareness of what university will be like, “I honestly don’t think the students know quite what to expect when they come” (A1), “I had this crazy notion that students would come ready for independent learning ... and have a more realistic expectation of what they would be left to do and how they would

⁸ All students receive a copy of the university Student Charter in their Student Handbook detailing what the university asks from its students and also what the university will return in kind.

have to do additional work” (A6). This supports Taylor and Bedford’s (2004) Australian study into academic perceptions of student non-completion, which found that “student perceptions and the mismatch with reality are a major issue” (p. 386). In the UK Briggs *et al.* (2012) and Ramsden (2013) also indicated that before transfer students have difficulty in identifying their expectations of university life and predicting their student experience - “I would say that there’s yet to be a student that I’ve ever met [since 2008] that understands instantly from the minute they come into university that it’s about independent scholarly work” (A9).

Concern is expressed that many students do not see the importance of the first year, “a generic impression that I get is that a lot, a vast majority, not everyone, are quite happy to get through first year because university for them at that point isn’t about the taught and timetables session of their programme” (A8). Academics are at pains to point out that this year is crucial in developing the skills to succeed because of the implications it has on future years of study but that the majority of students do not see this as important as exemplified in this comment from one of the academics, “‘Well, do our first year marks count?’ And I returned their question ‘Does this matter? Is this first year not the basis for everything coming after it?’” (A6).

This sub-theme suggests that academics believe that they state very clearly what they expect of a student in their first year and that they anticipate an unbalanced exchange – student under-obligated – because they recognise that students are new to the processes and skills required to be an effective UG student. However although they are willing to accept this imbalance initially they are not willing to accept a breach of their explicit expectations. This will be discussed in the next section.

5.3.1.4 The Experience

In line with research conducted into the impact of PCB there are fewer unmet expectations of academics within the relationship than there are of students (Conway & Briner, 2005; Lester *et al.*, 2002)

When describing their ideal pedagogic relationships, a minority of academics tended to focus on what they expected from students as opposed to their own role within the relationship,

suggesting that it was the responsibility of the student to conform so that an ideal relationship would exist. However most of the academics saw the relationship as a reciprocal one (*i.e.* what each needed to contribute) with academics playing a “proactive” (A3) role but one where there has to be “balance” (A6):

Here’s my role, I’ll be up to speed, up to scratch, have good sets of notes, I’ll give you everything you need, I’ll write you questions, I’ll give you formative feedback, formative assessments – I’ll do all of that for you, but I want at least that you give me back attending and doing the work set and engaging (A2).

Instead of describing the relationship in terms of expectations, promises and obligations, these academics often described the general nature, qualities and features - “compromising” (A5) “inspiring” (A7), “challenging” (A8) - of the relationship. This supports McInnis’ (2012) findings that most individuals use feature-based language to describe their expectations of relationships and their PC experiences. For example, when academics were describing their ideal relationship they were not emphasising what was being exchanged (*e.g.* hours worked or role obligations) but rather spoke in terms of the general nature of the relationship and what the relationship entailed, *e.g.* “balance” (A6), “facilitation” (A7) and “commitment” (A9).

All academics had experienced some form of breach of their expectations from the first year pedagogic relationship. Table 5.4 shows the consequences of breach for how the academic thinks, feels and behaves, as interpreted from their words.

The extent of the impact was different across the participants with some feeling a greater sense of disappointment than others who had perhaps conditioned themselves to expect disappointment, “my minimum expectation would be, so I suppose my first line of disappointment would be [participant laughs] where” (A1). Where breach occurred the primary reaction of the academic was an emotional one with feelings of despair, negativity and insecurity.

Table 5.4 The Consequences of Breach: How an Academic Might Think, Feel and Behave Following a Breach of the Pedagogic Relationship.

Cause of Breach	Academic Thinks	Academic Feels	Academic Behaves
Poor Attendance/ Lack of Interest	<p>"It could be so much more" (A1)</p> <p>"That's a pancake. I'm thinking, well, you're wasting my time, where have they been? What have they been doing?" (A2)</p>	Disappointment / Flat	<p>Keep calm and carry on</p> <p>Be professional</p>
Lack of Effort Lack of Responsibility Poor Engagement	"I'm setting a test. I gave them two weeks and nobody cares" (A5)	Frustration/Let down	Remind students of importance of engagement
Lack of Effort Lack of Independence	"If you haven't understood some of the most generic, basic concepts now How are you going to progress and develop" (A9)	Worried	Support those students who look like they need help
Lack of Effort	"Perhaps there is a problem with the design ... for them not to be engaged" (A5)	Insecure	<p>Adapt lecture / seminar plans</p> <p>Try new activities</p>
Lack of Effort Poor Attendance	"Why would they come into a presentation situation and feel that was appropriate" (A8)	Gobsmacked	Remonstrate with students

With response to actual behaviour the findings suggest that, for the majority of academics, their sense of professionalism and ideological commitments overcomes any overtly damaging actions to the other party and they operate as they believe their role expects. This bears out Bunderson's notion (2001) of professional and administrative ideologies and how they can shape the PCs of professionals. Where a perceived professional breach is seen to occur such as 'Lack of Effort' or 'Poor Attendance' this does not result in the agent (academic) withholding their obligations, although job satisfaction may decrease (Bunderson, 2001). These findings also corroborate Wrzesniewski *et al.*'s (1997) considerations that for those individuals with a 'calling' orientation to their work, breaches made by the other party will not result in a reciprocal damaging action.

When students fulfil the expectations that academics have of them the outcome is overwhelmingly emotional. A2's comment portrays the sentiments felt by all the academics when students were engaged and prepared:

It's brilliant. It's like *Dead Poets Society* kind of thing, sometimes in the seminars when they, you know, have done the work and understand it, they're shouting answers out or they're asking questions, they want to go a bit deeper and things, it's, it's brilliant. That's exactly what you want as a lecturer, and it gives you such a good buzz. That's what you're there for really. You do – it sounds silly – but you do make it, you feel like you've contributed and made a difference (A2)

Academics experience fewer opportunities of contract fulfilment and therefore their emotions are kind of "bitter sweet, because on the one hand it's like, 'Oh thank God!' You know, thank God that it does still happen occasionally" (A1).

5.3.1.5 Summary of Academic Expectations Findings

In summary, academics perceive the relationship to be reciprocal and that there is a social exchange. In return for attendance, preparedness and engagement from students, academics will provide appropriate learning materials, support and time for students. Thus the exchanges are made up of expectations which are explicit (transactionary in nature); attend, prepare and engage, as well as implicit (relational); have an interest, and professional (ideological). This is in line with Koskina's definition of the student PC (2011). The academic appears to be more concerned with the correct behaviour of students as opposed to

student intentions and whether they are transactional or relational – keeping to the terms of their explicit PC is more important than meeting their implicit expectations.

From the academics' perspective the relationship is highly dependent on trust in the other party to step up to the mark of being a 'university student' which is perhaps why when breach of the contract occurs the consequence is to feel emotions as opposed to having a behavioural response (Nadin & Williams, 2012). There is some evidence to suggest that, for a minority of academics, where breach does occur their response is to retreat to a more transactional relationship where the terms are more likely to be explicit – the withdrawal may serve to restore equity to the relationship in the eyes of the academic such that they reduce their commitment and effort to a level which they regard as fair: "It's partly self-protection, self-preservation" (A7).

It is also apparent that expectations of the exchanges within the pedagogic relationship will change further, "I wouldn't be happy, you know, to do the same thing for L6 for instance. Because then, you are a senior student, you know everything about it, so I'm not expecting that you are behaving like this" (A6). This supports the PC literature which considers that contracts evolve over time and are ongoing between the two parties (De Vos *et al.*, 2009) and that the explicit/implicit nature of the relationship also changes (Rousseau, 2001).

There is a perception also that academics do examine their general pattern of exchange with first year students in terms of balance and level of expectations and obligations. The findings suggest that, from some academics' view, an imbalance exists with a "proportion of students" (A7) holding a 'student under-obligation' typology resulting in an unbalanced exchange relationship (Shore & Barksdale, 1998), resulting in a situation where "there's more on my plate than theirsI think, I do feel, that I'm doing more than they're doing" (A7). However one academic perceived the situation to be one where mutual low obligations existed, suggesting that the exchange relationship is balanced but weak, "I would say it's a balanced relationship and the problem is at the minute both parties are saying 'Well you're not meeting my expectations' so there is no meeting in the middle" (A6).

Thus far this Chapter has focused on the expectations of the pedagogic relationship from the academic's perspective. It has shown that academics do regard the relationship as a mutual one with each party having mutual obligations to the other. Academics expect these mutual obligations to change over a period of time as students adjust to 'UG studentness' which results in a re-evaluation and assessment of their own obligations and commitments. This

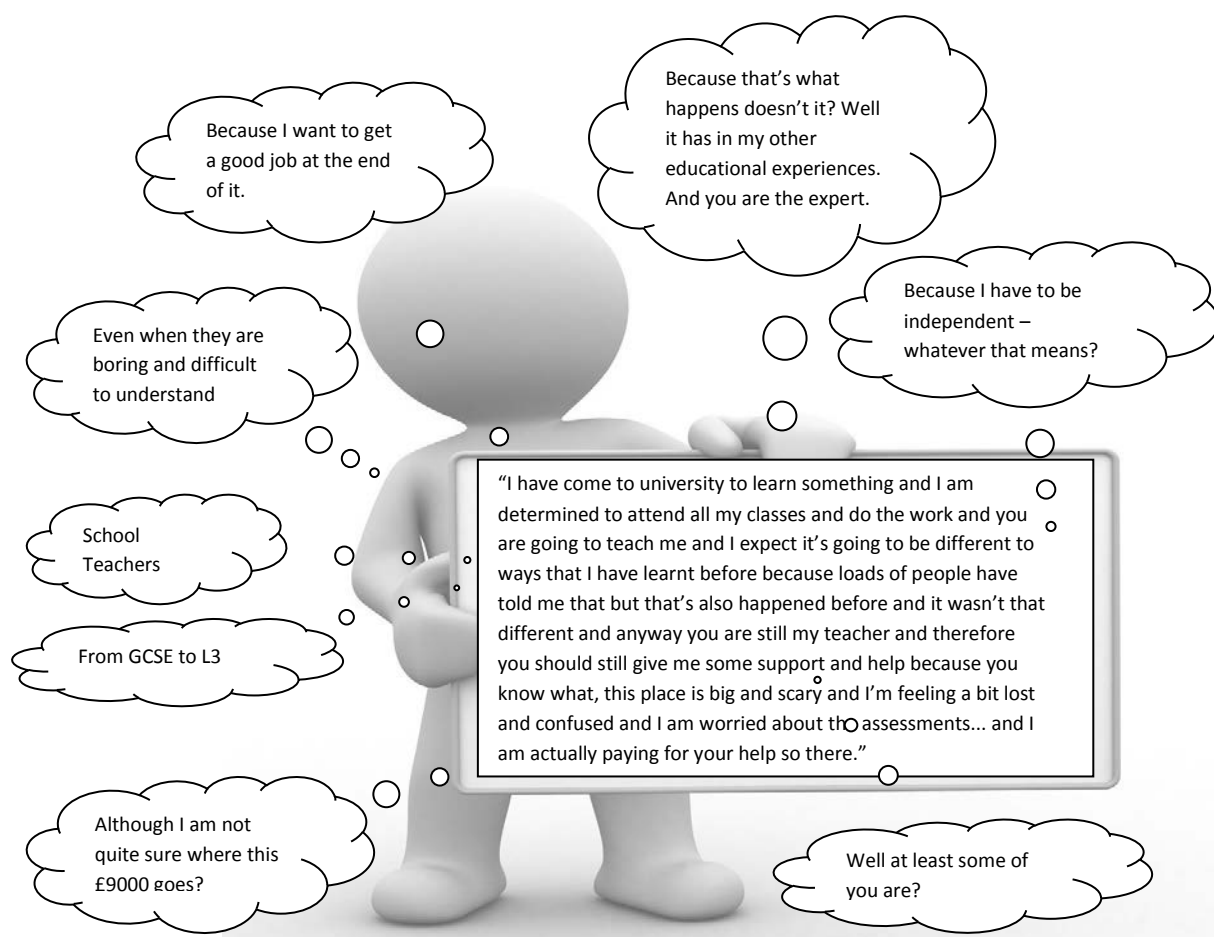
supports Robinson *et al.*'s (1994) findings of PC in the workplace. There was a perception, also in line with Rolfe (2002), that for many students, academics believed that the key motivator to come to university had changed from one of academic interest to instrumentalism. The next section will discuss the findings from the students' interviews and how their expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect their first year experience.

5.3.2 Findings, Analysis, Synthesis: Student

Figures 5.8, 5.9 and 5.10 depict generalisations expressing the expectations and experiences that first year students have of their relationship with academics. Each figure represents a phase of interview within the longitudinal study and characterises the students' perspectives captured in the qualitative data. They represent my sense-making in respect of the commonly expressed experiences that the participants have shared with me. As such the findings from the data take shape as 'stories' with the passage of time organising the stories within the text and across the themes. This approach draws upon the principles of Hammersley and Atkinson's (1983) description of thematic organisation and also shares some similarities with Van Maanen's (1988) realist tales. It allows also for the dynamic aspect of the research and shows how often the outcomes of exchange at one point in time become a cause of the next cycle of exchange (Conway & Briner, 2005; Nadin & Williams, 2012).

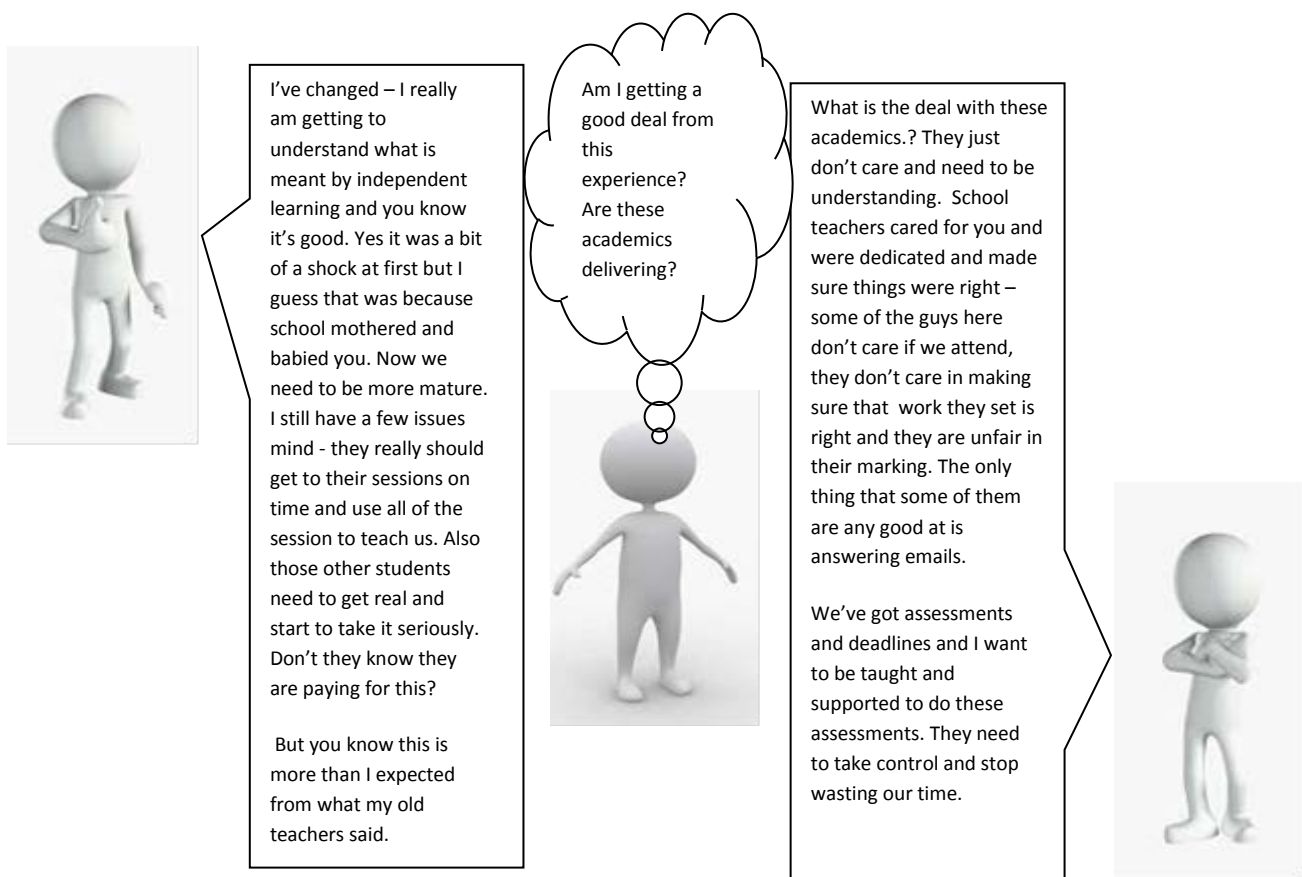
Phase 1 generalisations were developed through the analysis of the semi-structured questionnaires. These generalisations depict the initial pre-entry expectations that student had and highlights their concerns and insecurities. The main body of text in the generalisation has no punctuation indicating the confused and flustered responses that students gave in terms of their expectations. The speech bubbles reflect the source of their comments, for example ‘School teachers’ and ‘From GCSE to L3’ suggest that their previous experiences have influenced their expectations; and also reveal further their lack of security and understanding of teaching and learning within HE, for example ‘Because that’s what happens doesn’t it?’

Figure 5.8 Phase 1 Generalisations



Phase 2 generalisations were drawn from the second phase of semi-structured interviews and reveal that not all students develop their expectations in the same way or at the same time. Socialisation and adjustment occur at different stages. Here the speech bubble in the centre of the generalisation indicates that even though students make sense of and respond to their situation in different ways they still do question the experience they are undergoing and whether these events are meeting their expectations. This is similar to that seen in Phase 1 generalisations where there is a perception that students still do not know what to expect from the pedagogic relationship.

Figure 5.9 Phase 2 Generalisations



In the final phase of generalisations (Phase 3) students show themselves to have matured into their relationships with academics and have formed more specific expectations. It also indicates that not all of their expectations are being met and that, although this does impact on their experience, it does not necessarily have a negative impact. Furthermore it reveals how students desire to be seen as individuals with different expectations from others and also that the terms of their exchange relationship are dynamic and subject to change. However the use of the student code and number on the figure demonstrates that students still do not feel that they are treated as individuals by their academics and that they are only one of many anonymous individuals within their group. There are no speech bubbles in this generalisation as students showed themselves to be more certain of their expectations and spoke with more authority.

Figure 5.10 Phase 3 Generalisations



The bottom line is, it's down to me – it's my responsibility to be a good student because I am the one who will get the rewards at the end. This year I think I have put in the effort especially when you guys have made the effort with me. But there are some things that you have got wrong which is just not on – like marking and feedback. Can't you get the marking more consistent and can't you give me some constructive feedback to help me improve in the future? Talk to me about how to improve, don't just give me a number and a word-bank comment! Also why do you bother getting me to read things which are not going to be on the exam? It's wasting my time. Remember I am paying for this – although I do appreciate that this is not of your concern and that I have to be the one to get value for my money.

I do understand that not all students are like me – remember I have to work with the "lads in halls" type too but I don't care about them – I have put in the effort so you should be there for me! We are not all the same. But you know what I've been pretty pleased with the deal I've got from most of you this year and looking forward to further support next year when the stakes are higher.

Collectively these generalisations depict and illustrate the transition and adjustment in students' expectations during their first year, supporting a view that parties grow into their relationships and compromise on certain expectations. They also disclose that students are aware that there is a monetary aspect to their relationship which does impact on their expectations across all phases. These issues will be discussed and developed further in the following discussions.

The themes and subthemes to be discussed concerning students are detailed in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Themes and Sub-themes: Student

Theme	Sub-theme
What does it mean to be a Student?	Ask for Support Attend Study Independently Participate Put the Effort in Take personal responsibility Diversity of student body The Importance of 'studentness' in the first year
What does it mean to be an Academic?	Who's who? Approachable/Contactable Enthusiastic Knowledge/Expert in their field/Practitioner in their field Professional/Able to teach/Competent Supportive To know who I am
Newbie Expectations and Experiences	Pre-Entry Sources Open Days Tuition Fees Pre-Entry Experiences Experiences of Learning
Post-Entry Experiences	Not all Academics are the Same Concerns for the Future Assessment and Feedback Experiences Transition Not all Students are the Same Size Support
The Experience	Breach Support and Guidance Role of the Academic Lack of Equity and Fairness Behavioural Outcome Emotional Outcome Fulfilment Support and Guidance Role of the Academic When they know me Behavioural Outcome Emotional Outcome
The Relationship	Identity Reciprocal Consistency Fairness Respect

5.3.2.1 What does it mean to be a student?

In the first phase (November) all students had stated expectations of their role as similar to those voiced by academics, “that you attend, that you do all the work that you have to do, directed study and things and just have an interest in what you are actually doing and not just sit there, participation” (S4). They were also aware that they would be expected to study independently, “to do some independent work, go and look at journals when they tell you and get essays in on time” (S1). However there is a difference in what they see as independent study and what academics perceive as independent study. Students initially see independent study as a very mechanical operation *i.e.* “read up on the teaching and learning plans, find out what you’ve got to do and not be told what you have to do” (S4) – it is a reactive activity and does not require any proactivity on their behalf – they are still responding to requirements – an appreciation they might not be told *when* to read the literature but they will be told *what* literature to read and *how* to read it. The responsibility still lay with the academic. This is consistent with the findings of Hibbert, as cited in Thomson (2008), where she found with History A Level students “In the sixth form they thought they were thinking independently, but when they got to university they realised that they had been spoon fed” (p. 2).

Attendance was seen as important by all students, as too was punctuality although there was an impression that first years were not expected to have 100% attendance, “I think it’s kind of expected that people aren’t going to show up to every lecture because its first year” (S6). Some students suggested that this came as a surprise to some academics, “something I’ve noticed is that there doesn’t seem to be as many people as what the lecturer is expecting” (S7) and that the students who did not attend were those who prioritised their social life over their academic studies and are easily distracted.

When the students were interviewed a second time (Phase 2, March) there had been a subtle change in their perceptions of the student role and the expectations placed upon them. With regards to independent learning, students expressed a deeper appreciation of what was involved; academics will “show you how to find the answer rather than give you the answer” (S2) and that it was beneficial “because it makes you work on your own initiative rather than being guided so much” (S8). This was also linked to future concerns “I think they do expect you to try and work some things out for yourself. I think that’s an important part of development at University. You know, because in the big wide world when you’re out there

in the workplace you're not going to be able to go and knock on your boss's door every two minutes are you?" (S1) which is supported in the literature (Bates & Kaye, 2014; Moore, McNeill & Halliday, 2011). They also took more responsibility with regards to their work where it was important for the student to take the initiative in their learning and it was their personal responsibility to make sure they got the most from their first year experience, even if they did not feel like the academics were meeting their side of the bargain.

....whether they're meeting my expectations or not, that's just a bump in the road, but probably more like a pothole, to be fair; but a pothole doesn't affect the car in the sense that the car can still drive, it's just going to get knocked around a little bit more. However, if you're on a nice, smooth road, then it's easy driving. So in that analogy, forgive me for saying it, but the lecturer is the potholes and the student would be the car (S7).

This increase in responsibility was also linked to the issue of tuition fees where students implied that "I've paid £9000 to come here so I might as well make the most of it" (S2) suggesting, as before, that it was their responsibility to make it work. Their investment into their degree made them more motivated to make the most of their experience, "It makes me want to work a lot harder, knowing that I have to pay more back!" (S8). This supports Bates & Kayes' (2014) findings and refutes Jones' (2010) argument that the increase in tuition fees would increase students' expectations and put the responsibility for them achieving a good educational experience into the hands of their academic teachers.

This acceptance, that the student did have a greater role to play in the relationship compared to in Phase 1, is also seen in the way students talk about the need for students to be "mature" (S4) and "to act like an adult" (S6) and for them to provide "feedback" (S8) to academics on the modules. This was now a shared relationship where students had to be prepared to "push and get answers, rather than sit and say nothing" (S4).

At their final interview (Phase 3, June) there had been a significant shift in the participants' expectations of what it is to be a student. The role had grown in size and complexity. The perfunctory behaviours stated in Phase 1 – attend, listen, do the work and participate were still seen as necessary qualities but were taken as a given, these will only help you "to learn and be able to interact" (S4). Something more was required to be a successful student:

I don't know if I can explain it, but I think if the students show more interest, they almost have their own ideas, they have their own thoughts they can build opinions off what they've learnt, what they've read, be able to essentially argue

the point a little bit more, showing that they're actually keen to learn a subject (S7).

In their eyes studentness was much more than just turning up, although one participant did feel that a student was expected “just to do the work and put [their] head down to be honest” (S8). This supports findings from the UK 2015 Student Academic Experience Survey (Buckley, Soilemetzidis & Hillman, 2015) where students recognised that the quality of their experience also depended on their efforts.

At this stage it also became apparent that not all students perform at this level and that these other students were having a negative impact on other students' experiences:

To be honest I used to get annoyed with people that used to come and they'd ask – ‘have you done ? No,’ and then the lecturer would have to say ‘right spend ten minutes and read that,’ well no that's why I've already prepared so now I'm wasting ten minutes that we could've got a bit more in-depth in (S1).

All students should be “team players” (S7) who “should actually show that they want to be there” (S7) and they had a shared responsibility, “It's just because without the work, it's pretty pointless, because we're all here to get a degree, it would mean nothing if nobody was here” (S5).

Students were “irritated” (S5) and “annoyed” (S1) with those “party types” (S3) who appeared not to put in the effort when they themselves had “read that book, [whilst] they're watching a film and I bet they still pass” (S1). There was perhaps even a touch of envy as one commented that he was angry with them “because in a way I wish I could do that but I'll not let myself do that” (S1). This is congruent with Bordia *et al.*'s (2010) findings concerning conscientious students which indicated that students high in conscientiousness suffered more in terms of psychological well-being when their expectations were not met by others than less conscientious students. Highly conscientious students invest more into their studies and give more and as a result they expect more from both academics and other students which when not reciprocated, can have a negative effect upon their student experience.

Student participants also felt very strongly in this phase that within the pedagogic relationship they had a stronger responsibility in terms of meeting their own requirements than the academics, suggesting a ‘student over-obligation’ typology (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). This was in part driven by tuition fees and the fact that they were paying for their degree:

I've paid the nine grand, I'm here – you're – I don't mean this in the wrong way but you are here to serve *us*, now that we pay the money you are here – we kind of employ you kind of thing, but we're the one that's doing the degree, you're not doing the degree for us, you're just there to assist us, put us in the right direction, mark our work, not to do it (S1);

and also through future career aspirations: “I think you pay for your degree don't you and you pay for how far you go in life and obviously, if you've got a degree then you've got access to better paid jobs so it's an investment”(S7). Again this is supported in the literature, suggesting that with the increase in tuition fees there is an increasing focus by students on future employability and the implicit expectation that a university education will deliver this for you (Bates & Kaye, 2014; Moore *et al.*, 2011).

5.3.2.1.1 Diversity of the student body

The diversity of the student body and the importance of the individual was also a theme addressed by the participants. They were aware that as individuals they all had different strengths and weaknesses “Well I'm not saying that everyone will say the same but as a few of my lecturers are already aware, I'm not a confident person, I like a little bit extra support” (S1). This type of insecurity was common across the student group in Phase 1 and students expected the academic “to understand [each student] on your level, what you are trying to learn. Not everyone is at the same level when they come to university; we've all got different knowledge and stuff” (S6). This recognition, that all students were not the same, brought about an expectation from some students that academics are obliged to acknowledge this and act accordingly “Well I'm not going to say I'm the easiest student, I would drive you nuts if everyone was like me but” (S1). One student felt very strongly that he should be supported because of what he had been told at an open day, “It was one of the main reasons for choosing this university because they promoted the open door policy” (S1) and was therefore interpreted as an explicit promise made to him and with it came specific obligations from the academic.

During the socialisation periods (Phases 2 and 3) some students matured and enjoyed the overt lack of support from their academics “because it seems to be working well, I'm not getting, like, harassed about work, and stuff, it's my responsibility” (S2). There is now a

recognition that learning does not only come from the contact time spent with academics but also from the students themselves – an acknowledgement and understanding of the role of independent learning. The terms of their relationship with the academics had “changed” (S2, S4, S6); they had become less reliant on the role of the academic in terms of the ‘giver of all knowledge’ and expected that they would be more of a facilitator. Not all students were the same however and for some academics remained “lazy” and “unprofessional” (S1).

This supports the notion that a PC is potentially idiosyncratic and is ‘in the eye of the beholder’ and unique to each person who agrees to it (Rousseau, 1995). The terms of the deal changed depending on the individual, with some students’ deal remaining firmly focused as more transactional and explicit ‘you are obligated to me as I pay tuition fees to come here and in return for that payment I expect you to teach me stuff and give me time’ whereas others see it as more relational and ideological and implicit ‘in return for your support and guidance I will put the effort into your work.’ Students were also very singular and focused in what they wanted to get out of the relationship and had high aspirations: “Turn up, get good grade, do well for myself because I want to do well” (S2).

5.3.2.1.2 Importance of ‘Studentness’ in first year

There was a perception by some of the students that as a first year you are “laying the foundations ...going to lectures, going to the seminars, participating, reading outside of class, doing – getting into those habits that will help you through to the second year” (S7). Most were very conscious of the fact that the first year did “not count” (S3), was “a worthless year” (S7) and that this impacted upon the attitude of some students and even academics: “I think most lecturers don’t really care how far above 40 you get as long as you are passing the module, really, I don’t really think they care much as – they just want to make sure everyone passes” (S1). This suggestion of low expectations of academics regarding first year students was echoed by another participant who felt that “they [the academics] expect less than they tell you to expect” (S1) and this lack of authenticity made them ‘take their foot off a bit’ due to a lack of mutual desire to achieve at a high level. In Phase 3 the student participants all suggested that they had taken their first year very seriously and had performed to a high level but that there was a significant minority of other students who had not “done all that they

could” (S7) because of the fact that this year academically did not contribute towards the final degree qualification.

This section has shown that the normative expectations of students concerning their role concur broadly with those of the academics *i.e.* attend, prepare and participate. These are also similar to the ones identified in the initial quantitative research. Student expectations of their role do change over time; for example in the initial quantitative survey students did not see ‘study independently’ as a particularly important stated expectation, whereas during the qualitative phase the majority of students recognised this as an important and expected behaviour to develop.

The next section will discuss what students expect in return for their behaviours from academics within the pedagogic relationship.

5.3.2.2 What does it mean to be an academic?

All students in Phase 1 had a limited understanding of what the role of a ‘university teacher’ is. This was demonstrated by their lack of knowledge of the purpose of seminars and lectures. This requires them in the first few weeks to make sense of ‘who’s who’ in the pedagogic relationship. During initial socialisation students start to see the seminar tutor in the same mould as that of their ex high school/college teachers and expect more relational characteristics from them (*e.g.* nurturing and friendly). Relationships develop and students are more satisfied with this relationship than that which exists with their lecturers:

We probably expect a lot more from the seminar teachers but that’s because they’ve been a lot better. I feel like I come out of a seminar and I’ve learnt a lot more than I have in a lecture because it’s kind of more active learning and I feel like we learn, or I personally learn more through that and I learn more through being informal (S6).

Seminar tutors are also expected to “know your name” (S1), to “explain things properly” (S3) and “to put the extra effort in if you need something” (S8). Many students infer that they expect them to be more personable, “I would expect them to be quite approachable and understanding” (S7), “open” (S7) and “friendly so that I feel comfortable with them and then the helpful would come afterwards” (S3). Such sentiments express the desire for a social relationship which is a familiar theme across the literature (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013;

Ramsden, 2003; Voss *et al.*, 2007). These expectations in this first phase would seem to be predominantly met “I didn’t expect that [level of support] as much as it’s happening here” (S8) and suggests a positive experience. This then leads to this expectation being assimilated into the students’ new revised PC and creates an obligation on the lecturer to maintain this throughout the period of exchange (De Vos *et al.*, 2003; Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

The main expectations that students have of academics (lecturers) when they first arrive at university is for them to have knowledge of their subject and that they are able to share this knowledge effectively, “I want to be informed. I want to learn new things. I want them to know a lot about their subject and I want them to have some sort of ability to teach it” (S2). This is common across the literature (Barandiaran-Galdos *et al.*, 2012; Kandiko & Mawer, 2013; Ramsden 1992; Voss *et al.*, 2007) and was also identified during the quantitative survey (communication, subject, explain). In this initial phase they are respectful of their lecturers and they do not want to criticise, even when perhaps they do not feel that this person is providing an adequate service or meeting these initial expectations, “With the language barrier I think he, and don’t get us wrong, I think he knows everything about the module but sometimes I just think, he doesn’t get it across very clearly and sometimes I come out of a lecture thinking, what was that even about?” (S1) and “[I] have found a couple of the lecturers, because they are so clever, and they do what they are doing every day, for them it’s just step by step, but some people go through it a bit too quickly because that’s their thing” (S6). This does perhaps indicate that initially there is a power imbalance within the pedagogic relationship in the eyes of the student, with the academic having more power. The influence of this potential power imbalance between the agent (academic) and the employee (student) has not been commented upon in the newcomers’ PC literature and is perhaps unique to the pedagogic relationship. In this first phase most students expect the academic to be an ‘expert’ in all areas of teaching and learning and appear to retain this expectation even when they are becoming aware that it is not being met. It is not until something important triggers a reaction by the student that a breach is perceived to occur. This supports the literature that salience and personal significance of particular commitments is a key predictor of emotional outcomes regarding the occurrence of a broken expectation (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011).

Students also expect to be able to contact the lecturer by email and that they “can answer your emails. Maybe not straight away but they get back in touch with you, if you do have a problem. Someone who you are not afraid to go and talk to, so they don’t come across as a big scary lecture face” (S2). Another student also commented on “the scary environment”

(S4) of the lecture theatre suggesting that they had not anticipated the impact of size on their relationship with academics.

By March (Phase 2), all students recognise a definite division of ‘university teachers’ into two camps – lecturers and seminar tutors. Their relationship with the lecturer at this stage is mainly transactional “just to be knowledgeable in their subject” (S4) and to be able to “deliver the lecture he’s meant to deliver” (S1) whereas the relationship with the seminar tutor is much more relational “it’s easier to go up and talk to them about stuff” (S6).

Students’ expectations of seminar tutors in this second phase are demanding; they “have got to be more interactive and direct” (S3), they should “know your name” (S1), they should “give you feedback on your work” (S2) and they are the main source of academic support in the students’ eyes, “The only time I’ll go to the lecturer is if the seminar tutor’s no good” (S1). However not all academics conform to their expected role and so students can feel disappointed with the relationship which exists between them and the seminar tutor because “with some of them you can kind of tell they’re just there like a lecturer and then that’s that” (S4); they are not providing them with the social wellbeing which is expected of the seminar tutor: “And also, I know it’s kind of weird, but I did expect them to kind of know my name, like I’m sick of being called “the young lady at the back” which kind of is what it is but...” (S5).

Students expect less face to face emotional support from their lecturers but in compensation for this there has been an increase in their expectations of competency. They are less tolerant when lecturers do not fulfil their role and they expect to be given “correct materials from the start” and for “things to be right” (S1). There is also an expectation that lecturers should be easy to contact via email and that they should respond within 48 hours – such precise terms suggest a more formal relationship than expressed previously. Lectures should also be “engaging ... with something to catch you, something that will make you think” (S7).

Within this phase students also comment on their expectations that academics should have wider industrial experience to bring to the relationship, “an actual experience, like, 10 years in this industry, no book will ever be able to actually teach me that, or no one that has never done it can actually teach me it, it’s purely that what makes them a bit more unique” (S7).

Without this actual experience one student implies that the role of lecturer is superfluous to his needs. This supports recent findings by Buckley, Soilemetzidis & Hillman (2015) and Kandiko & Mawer (2013) where the perception that the academic and what they are teaching

is 'out-of-touch' with industry was of concern to individuals and to their employability prospects.

In this phase all students' perceptions of what it means to be an academic have changed somewhat from when they arrived. However they still primarily view the role of an academic is to teach and in order to do this they need to have "experience, vocational and specialist knowledge" (S7). A lecturer's role is "more just a stand up – it's very formal, like you're not really – you don't really speak to them" (S1) whereas "a seminar feels just like a class [at school], it doesn't feel too different" (S1).

There has been an increased expectation of academics being contactable – this may be due to the timing of the interviews which occurred just after completion of exams - and students commented on the need for academics to return emails when support was needed, "so it's important to stay in touch and I think when it says 'to answer emails within 48 hours' I think around exam period that is quite important" (S6). This explicit commitment by the business school to its students was something upon which most students commented.

The expectation that academics would know students' names was not present in this phase and was not a concern as students sympathised with academics, appreciating that the size of the business school and their workload might restrict an individual's ability to know names and have a more personal relationship. However they should still be competent in "teaching all the students their knowledge and encouraging the students to do their best as well but also they're doing additional research outside of just lecturing so they can provide the information that we, as students, need to get a degree" (S4).

With some students there was concern that their expectations of what an academic should be were not met, "that's one expectation I had, I thought university lecturers were going to be *more* formal, *more* professional, *more* educated than a teacher and I think they're *less*" (S1). Many students were surprised that errors had occurred in exam papers and were concerned about the inconsistency of marking across academics as this did not meet their expectations of the academic as 'expert.'

Looking to the future (L5 and beyond), students have new expectations of their tutors based upon their experiences of this year and from socialising with older students (co-workers). The students have been told that next year is much harder and "counts" (S7) and thus they expect their tutors to be "more approachable" (S7) and "offer more support" (S3) because "there's

more at stake ...so I'm not going to be willing to take as many risks, I'm going to want maybe that little bit extra guidance" (S7).

In summary, students at each phase have high expectations of the abilities of academics: "I do expect them to teach at a better standard, even though I would expect my A level teachers were able to teach at a good standard but obviously this is higher education and obviously this is the next step up from A Levels so I would expect it to be better teaching" (S2). Their main role is to teach students, to engage and to explain, "the lecture slide is the dirt, ground, you can't really do much with it, however the lecturer puts the seeds in and lets plants grow out of it, otherwise it's just a case of the lecturer would be sitting there just letting the dirt stay dirt" (S7). How the student perceives the role of the academic (*i.e.* a seminar tutor or a lecturer) determines whether the relationship is more transactional or relational in nature as different expectations are attached to these roles. Over the year students have become socialised and their expectations of a more personal relationship and exchange change: "like at first everyone used to say 'oh if you get stuck drop me an email' – I couldn't, I was like *an email?! I want to speak to you, not email you!* Where now you get used to kind of dropping an email" (S1). In common with previous literature and the quantitative findings students want their academics to be knowledgeable, approachable, fair and able to pass on their learning (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013; Ramsden, 2008; Voss *et al.*, 2007).

The qualitative and quantitative research differs in respect of academics reading draft work. This had been a low and unimportant expectation to students prior to entry whereas as the year progressed it became more salient. This perhaps suggests a need for students to have more early support to develop as independent learners in the context of the subjects they are studying prior to assessment.

As suggested in the PC creation and development literature there is evidence to suggest that students change their expectations of what it is to be an academic over the year based on the experiences they encounter and their interpretations (De Vos *et al.*, 2003). It has also influenced their perceptions of an academic's obligations (Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

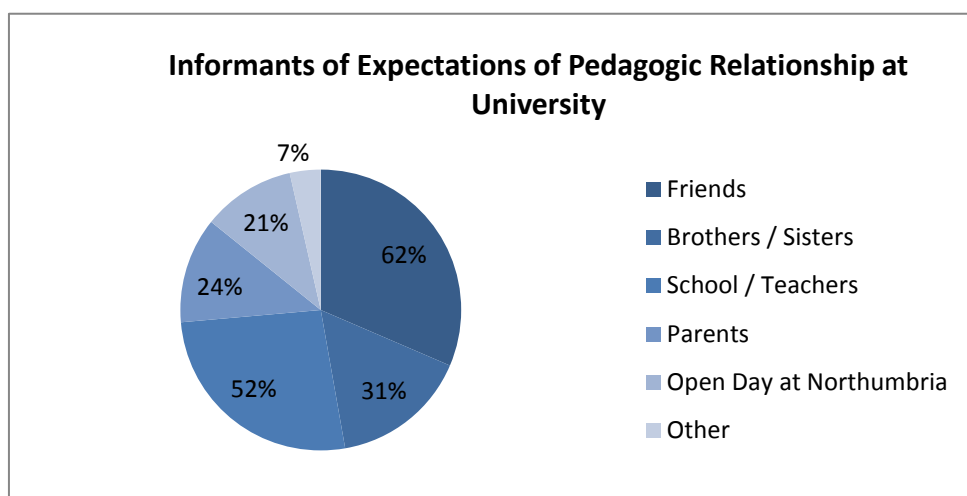
5.3.2.3 Newbie Expectations and Experiences

With regards to the formation of the PC, Tomprou and Nikolaou (2011) suggest that individuals develop the expectations that make up their initial PC from three main sources: Cognitive preconceptions, previous work experience and pre-entry information. In the educational context these can be defined as cognitive preconceptions referring to the schemata that students have gradually developed about pedagogy from previous experiences; previous work experience includes the experiences and relationships they have been exposed to on their educational journey to date, and pre-entry information about the university and how its academics fulfil their role in the pedagogic relationship from official and unofficial sources. These sources will then provide the specific elements of the PC that students will perceive as the academics' obligations/commitments towards them and their commitments to academics. The next section will discuss the themes and sub-themes relating to this area.

5.3.2.3.1 Pre-Entry Sources

The quantitative survey (see Figure 5.11) revealed that most students recognised the influence of friends and family in shaping their expectations of the pedagogic relationship. This was supported within the interviews where “family and peers” (S8) were mentioned by most participants as having had an impact. Not surprisingly school and teachers had also influenced what they could expect but the advice given by this source was very general and portrayed the relationship as very ‘hands off,’ “Well in sixth form and things they put it across a lot more that you had to be more independent, that you have to do more work” (S4). This partially supports Byrne and Flood’s (2005) findings where parents and subject teachers were the only two groups taken into consideration by students when coming to university, although it would seem that peers are now more of an important source of information to potential students prior to coming to university.

Figure 5.11 Sources of Expectations Prior to Entry to University.



Common with the literature (James 2002; Longden, 2006; Ramsden 2003; Sander *et al.*, 2000), it was also apparent that a couple of the participants had not fully considered their expectations of the pedagogic relationship prior to coming to university:

I don't really have many expectations from them because I don't really know what to expect in the first place. One thing I've found is that, like, there is not much help outside and then, like, work that I've done for seminars and stuff hasn't really been checked, or hasn't been overlooked or anything (S5).

This comment indicates that during the initial socialisation period the student did compare their experiences at university with those from school. As S5 went on to explain she had expected the above because of her experiences at school. The message that students receive from their school teachers does seem to have an impact upon their expectations and thus, as Briggs, Clarke & Hall (2012) and others have suggested there appears to be a need for closer liaison between L3 teachers and academic staff to ensure that students are getting a realistic and informed message prior to entry (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006; Jones, 2010)

5.3.2.3.2 Open Days

Another source of information that students commented on was the message they received at university open days. One participant indicated that the reason why he decided to come to this business school over another local business school was because of the explicit message received:

I went to ***** and they actually promoted in the open day, this university will be very independent, therefore if you're someone who likes to clarify things or check things out then this university is not for you. And that was it from then on because it's not that I didn't get the grades to go to ***** it's just that I don't like that way of learning, I think it would send us [me] loopy (S1).

This message was reinforced many times within the interviews at each phase with the student participant mentioning the open door policy on a number of occasions. This highlights James' concluding remarks (2002) that it is important to manage expectations at the start of the application process to avoid future violations and breaches.

5.3.2.3.3 Tuition Fees

Many students acknowledged the impact that tuition fees had had upon their basic expectations, "The money you pay to come, you expect to – you know it's not a Mickey Mouse sort of thing, you're paying a lot of money for something like this" (S1) and this student had been further influenced by his cousin, a student at another university in her second year, who had offered him the advice, "99% or 98% of people won't go and see their lecturer, they'll just ask a friend or try and work it out; when you're paying £9,000, she says, 'You want to ask them,' she said, 'I always ask them'" (S1). This supports the literature suggesting students now expect greater value for money with a higher dependency on their tutor (Jones, 2010) and that the external environment has condoned this "I think when we're doing the way we're doing university now, I think you should be getting a draft read" (S1).

The issue of tuition fees was mentioned extensively when students felt that the academics were not performing as they should be and thus reneging on their deal "it will usually happen in a lecture when it is quite boring and I haven't written a few notes down in a while, I'll think, 'you know, we're paying a lot of money for me to just sit looking at and listening to this person and I'm not getting anything from it'" (S5). This suggests that students do feel that the academics are obligated to them because of the payment of tuition fees and therefore their relationship does have a transactional element, "we pay a lot to be here and I just think if we're going to be in this much debt then why should lecturers not turn up or why should they just read off a PowerPoint. We're here to learn off their knowledge, not just reading notes off a screen" (S6). There is also the suggestion here again that the academic is the

expert and that the student will only learn from them – again suggesting a lack of understanding of the concept of the role of independent learning. There is a perception that students exchange their time and money for a professional service.

The paying of tuition fees also brings about an expectation of entitlement from students and the desire to be supported and recognised more within the relationship, “I’d rather not be a number. I’d rather not be seen as someone who has paid £9000 to come on the course and just someone sat in a seat being taught” (S2) but equally “when you’ve paid so much money, when you’re struggling you deserve to get the help and support” (S1). Students appear uncertain as to how the fee structure works and there is a perception by some that they are ‘buying’ an academic’s time:

I’ve paid the nine grand, you’re – I don’t mean this in the wrong way - but you are here to serve *us*, now that we pay the money– we kind of employ you. But we’re the one that’s doing the degree, you’re not doing the degree for us, you’re just there to assist us, put us in the right direction, mark our work, not to do it (S1).

It is apparent that with the increase in tuition fees students have become more confused with the nature of their relationships with academics and that they do expect more: “I’m paying for more so why not? I just don’t know what more I want!” (S2). Within their research, Bates and Kaye (2014) also found similar confusion from students who were not entirely sure as to what represented ‘value for money’ within HE and also where their tuition fees were actually spent (a finding also of Buckley *et al.*, 2015). Within this research however there was the perception by students that they were paying a significant amount of money and therefore expected a professional service:

£9,000 is a bit steep though, I’m not going to lie. I think it would be OK for about six, but nine seems a *lot* for what I’ve been taught for, to be honest, I’m not going to lie. I genuinely do think nine is a bit steep, especially when I’ve got a printer credit limit which is £20! When I’m paying £9,000 it’s a bit wrong that exams were like never checked and you get so frustrated when you’re sitting there, ‘why can they not just at least get a few words in the exam right?’ Especially when I’m paying so much; you know, you’d think that process would be in place, just to check. Yeah I do think £9,000 is a lot (S8).

To conclude, the impact of tuition fees would seem to have brought about both positive and negative consequences for the pedagogic relationship. Positively, students feel obligated to work as hard as they can within the relationship as they themselves are investing substantial

amounts of money into their education. On the negative side, students are dissatisfied in the manner of a consumer on occasions when their expectations are not met. This is often the case in those situations where basic, although often implicit, expectations have not been met *e.g.* they have not understood the lecturer and their contract with the academic has been breached. This supports Kandiko & Mawer's (2013) findings who also found that a consumerist ethos had emerged concerning students' expectations and perceptions.

5.3.2.3.4 Pre-Entry Experiences

None of the participants had attended university before and therefore had no specific experience of a university education prior to starting their programme. During Phase 1 of the interviews (November) students referred to their experiences within the tertiary sector and the accessibility of teachers and how this had informed their expectations of the skills of the academic, "As far as I'm aware, all my teachers [at school] have done a teaching degree or some form of teaching training so I'd expect my lecturers to have the same standard if not better because of the level that they are teaching at" (S2), and their role, "similar to that of a teacher you can go to them anytime you want and get that support about anything. I don't think it's going to be like school though" (S3). However some students commented on information that they had received from their school teachers which suggested that "it's totally different, so don't expect to get as much help" (S5). Where students had received this guidance their pre-entry expectations of the role of the academics was more in line with the academics' perspectives *i.e.* a guidance role as opposed to a fully supporting role. This further supports the notion that there is a need for more dialogue between the two sectors to ease student transition as mentioned in section 5.3.2.3.1.

In Phases 2 and 3 there had been a shift in student perspectives regarding the role of the academic and the level of support you could expect from them and it was often expressed negatively: "They [academics] don't, like, explain anything, they just say, 'Oh, check the answers' and expect you to go through fully, as, like, if you didn't understand the question, I'd expect them to, like, show you every single bit, as in, like at school they would. Now they don't" (S3). Academics, unlike their old school teachers "are not bothered if we do it" (S8). This is in line with existing research from organisational behaviour (Bordia *et al.*, 2013; De Vos *et al.*, 2003; Thomas & Anderson, 1998) which states that during initial

organisational socialisation, ‘newbies’ acquire socialisation knowledge which makes them reappraise what their employer should provide and this, in turn, influences their perceptions of future employer obligations – suggesting that changes in the PCs are a move towards a socially constructed reality (Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

5.3.2.3.5 Experiences of Learning

As mentioned previously, all the students interviewed had been educated in the North East of England and had gained an A Level qualification or BTEC qualification profile. An overwhelming and hardly surprising motive for coming to university expressed by all students was to learn: “I want to learn, I’m here to learn” (S2) so that “I can get a good degree” (S2). In Phase 1 (November) they described their role within the learning experience using very passive language – “listen, pay attention and apply” (S7). In their mind, learning was something done to them by someone else “who should actually teach me something that I didn’t know and they should have a greater knowledge in it so that I can benefit as well”(S4). Their role obligation within the pedagogic relationship was just to be there and to have done the work although many did not believe that you had to do all the work and that indeed some of the work was superfluous to their needs and had only been set to justify the tuition fees:

Because I don’t think it’s reasonable to have done it all, some of it, you just think it’s a bit of waste but I think again it goes with the fees I think. I think people think that because I’m paying this much money I expect to be given stuff to do. I think if they said ‘actually there’s nothing else to do for this once you’ve been to the lecture,’ I think that people would say ‘I’m paying £9,000 for this’ so, you know what I mean (S1).

In return for turning up they wanted everything to be “sorted out for them” (S4), they want to “write things down” (S5), “learn something different” (S7) and not for it to be “wishy washy” (S6). All students also expected feedback which would be “constructive” (S6) to improve their future performance, “I felt that afterwards [the feedback] I had really learnt something and that it was probably a learning I could take forward as well and use at work rather than just a quote I needed to know” (S6). In line with other research conducted in this area (Coaldrake & Stedman, 2001; Dunkin, 2002) their expectations of how learning occurs and ‘what is education’ would appear to be informed by their previous educational experience.

What became apparent in the later interviews was that learning was also something to be done so that they were able to pass their exams or assessments:

I've weaned myself off all the direct learning tasks, and stuff, because as long as you prepare for your seminars, and stuff, a lot of them – the odd one you might look at, but most of them are just so they're giving you something for £9,000, a lot of the stuff isn't really benefiting you in anyway really. They may be widening your knowledge but they're not really helping in the exam (S1).

Directed study or activities in seminars which were not related to assessment meant that students “could be doing something more productive, like going towards my final assessment or something that I'm going to need in the exam” (S5). Students need to have a reason to be given the knowledge, it was not enough purely for its own sake:

There was a lot of theory, we did a different topic each week and I didn't expect that and then for us to only choose one of the topics to write a *whole* assignment on, that seemed a little bit strange, so you might as well have only turned up to one week that you were going to do your assignment on! (S2).

This substantiates Jeffrey's findings (2012) that teachers at L3 impress upon students that assessment is about achieving good grades and that good grades come from knowledge retention and regurgitation, "fact finding rather than deep learning" (p. 4). “Welcome to the [secondary education] machine” as Pink Floyd once wrote. Some education critics have said that our secondary education system has become like one giant exam-passing machine which students have to adapt to in order to gain entry into university (*The Daily Telegraph*, 2014). The sentiments expressed by the students regarding what they needed to learn and why they need to do it would support these critics. It also supports those that have suggested that students now take a more instrumental approach to their education (Rolfe, 2002).

5.3.2.4 Post-Entry Experiences

As students become accustomed to university and their new environment, the sense-making process helps them to further understand, interpret and respond to the pedagogical relationship. This process can help the new students bring their expectations in line with their experiences (Louis, 1980). It is during this period of sense-making and socialisation that students redefine what they expect from their academics in terms of the pedagogic relationship. Thus students dynamically make sense of their PC based upon their lived experiences (De Vos *et al.*, 2003).

5.3.2.4.1 Not all Academics are the Same

During this period (Phases 2 and 3) students have lower expectations of a more supportive role and perceive two types of academics – those who “keep you at arm’s length” (S1) and those who “don’t seem to mind if you take up two minutes of their time” (S1). It appears obvious to some students that some academics would “rather be just like researching themselves but they have got to do a lecture at some point, whereas others, they’re really enthusiastic and they really want to teach” (S4). This inconsistency is hard for some students to deal with and can be a cause for concern.

Prior to entry to university students were aware of the international nature of the business school and that there will be “international students and international lecturers” (S1). However there is an expectation that all academics will be able to express their ideas clearly and succinctly and that they are able to teach – when this does not happen students become increasingly frustrated:

Some of it didn’t even make sense and he was literally just reading out his PowerPoint presentation and he wasn’t even correcting his grammar and I just thought, I could go home and read that on the computer, I don’t really need to be here for you to read it out to me and I could probably correct it as well. It was just frustrating because he wasn’t even that bothered about being there either (S6).

This supports the findings on what students perceive to be the main role of the academic; to be able to teach students and provide new ideas, insights and information, and when the academic is unable to fulfil their obligations in the eyes of the student it is “a waste of time because I can’t even understand you” (S1). The actions taken by students in response to this violation is of interest as only two are prepared to formally complain and others react in the manner of a passive constructive (Rousseau, 1995) and ‘just get on with it.’ Those participants who are prepared to take on a more active constructive role (Rousseau, 1995) do not always use the formal channels available to them to complain about these episodes, suggesting that perhaps this is too disrespectful and that there does exist a power imbalance between the parties.

There is also an expectation that academics should make full use of their time allocation with students and that they should not be late. These are explicit expectations drawn from their previous educational experiences and social norms, “it’s just out of politeness” (S6), and

students are frustrated when they do not turn up , “it’s not great” (S2). There is a perception also that they are not getting value for money from some academics, “it’s just, like, we’d like you to explain it [the answer] now because the seminar is a full 50 minutes and she just, like, just does it in half an hour so you’ve still got an extra 20 minutes and she could have explained it all in that 20 minutes” (S3). Perhaps this indicates the underlying impact of consumerism on the relationship as discussed in the literature – we have paid for 50 minutes and so we expect it.

5.3.2.4.2 Concerns for the Future

One of the reasons why a supportive and proactive academic was so important to many of the students was because of their concerns for the future. These students had high aspirations and were high achievers, not accustomed to failing, “obviously with my course being one of the better business courses I would expect to have the best tutors and lecturers on it. It would make sense that you would want the brighter people teaching the brighter students - if that’s not being big headed” (S2). As such they are similar to those students that Bordia *et al.* (2010) refer to as high in “conscientiousness” and have higher performance expectancies, requiring from others at least as much as they are willing to give to a process.

Students revealed that there was a lot riding on the successful completion of a good degree, “it makes me want to work harder, knowing that I have to pay back more and because I will need to get a job” (S8) and that therefore it was important for them to work hard but also for the academics to provide the toolkit to help them achieve. This is consistent with the trend identified in existing literature that students are increasingly concerned with their future employability and perceive the acquisition of a degree as a way to increase their likelihood of securing a rewarding career (Bates & Kaye, 2014; Kandiko & Mawer, 2013) and take a more instrumentalist view of their education (Rolfe, 2002).

5.3.2.4.3 Assessment and Feedback Experiences

As assessment and coursework deadlines approached (Phases 2 and 3), students’ expectations of supportive academics became more demanding and students reverted back to what they

had experienced at school / college level, “there’s coursework deadlines now and I would expect them to help me even more, just to try harder for us” (S3). Students expected time to be given to them by all academics and for academics to respond to their emails because the expectation of support to help them prepare for exams was very salient, “I just think, God, that was important, like my final exam – my Law one, I’d emailed them on the Wednesday and the exam was on the Monday and he never replied to me this day” (S1). Students also commented on their experiences of feedback:

How are we meant to learn anything from handing stuff in? I got one of my essay things back yesterday and there’s a huge box for saying any comments, there wasn’t one thing written in it, there was just a mark on the front and it was a bit like, how am I meant to know what I did well and where I went wrong? (S6).

This supports Lane’s (2010) findings regarding assessment and feedback which indicated unfulfilled expectations of greater support prior to a deadline with clear explanatory assessment criteria and that feedback “is a disappointment to many” (p. 11). It also supports the findings of Nicol (2010) that for feedback to be effective it needs to be given in a dialogue within a supportive context, as feedback which consists of just generic comments is seen as useless and is reviled by most students (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013).

5.3.2.4.4 Transition

During the first year all students went through significant transition where they reviewed their expectations of themselves and of academics. Many students understood themselves as having matured. Some recognised that the increased independence they had been given with regards to learning was a way for academics “to prepare us for the world of work” (S6) and that it was not simply because they “don’t care” (S1). This growth in maturity was also demonstrated when students acknowledged the constraints that faced academics such as the numbers of students that they had to deal with in lectures and the volume of seminar groups which they taught compared to their old school teachers, “[At school] it was a bit more personal but obviously because it was on a smaller scale it can be” (S4). There was a perception that academics had to be ‘cruel to be kind’:

It’s a case of the necessary evil of university; you’ve got to do it and - it is useful to a certain extent because it does build a good foundation, for example next year I’m definitely going to be more prepared to sit down and do hours of

reading in my own personal research which I wouldn't have got into the habit of unless I was at least doing some this year (S7).

Academically students changed. Some had not appreciated the level which was required at university, "I thought it would be easier, to be honest, because everyone I had spoken to [had said that it would be]" (S1) and they had found it difficult to understand what "independent learning" was about. In Phases 2 and 3 it became apparent that students started to grasp what it meant to learn independently, "I think I got into how it worked a bit more and understood it wasn't like sixth form; it was a little bit different" (S2) but there was still an element of the need for their work to be monitored and checked, "I want to try and get the best grade and so I want to be offered as much help as possible to improve it" (S3).

5.3.2.4.5 Not all Students are the Same

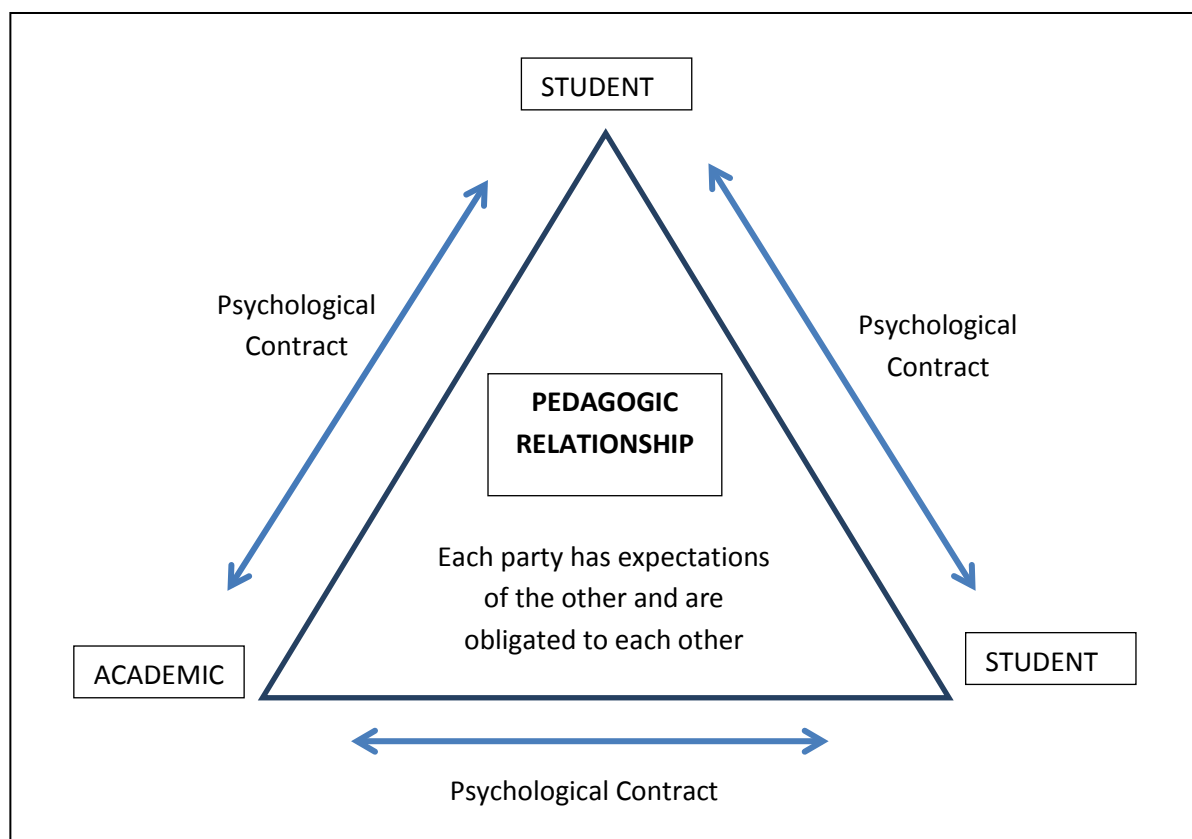
Students also became aware of their relationships with other students as a means to improve their learning, "getting their [other students] opinions on something, it can broaden your mind" (S4) and how "we kind of teach each other" (S6). However many of the student participants had been disappointed and "annoyed" (S1) with the learning relationships which had developed with other students and saw their lack of effort as something which could ultimately impact upon their results, "I would throw the book at – literally throw the book at some of the students, they're just being there, not saying anything and then leaving" (S7). They also felt that it was unfair to them when academics allowed students who "just didn't bother" (S4) in group work activities to "get some of the credit" (S4) and despite the "irritation" (S5) of such matters students did not feel that academics were doing enough to stop such action and one student reverted back to high school terminology by suggesting the "need for detentions" (S5). The lack of attendance in seminars and lectures from other students was also mentioned by the participants as "frustrating" (S8) and was not something they had expected. They did feel that it impacted upon their learning experience but did not have an answer as to why attendance was low:

So the question would have to be well why is attendance so bad? And you can look at it from two perspectives; it's either a case of this student is just lazy, doesn't want to show up, why are they not coming or is it a case of what's the

teacher doing, are they helping them, do they give suitable amounts of time, is it a worthwhile lesson? (S7).

This suggests that students also have implicit expectations of other students and feel obligated to them, reflecting a multiplicity of PCs within the pedagogic relationship as depicted in Figure 5.12.

Figure 5.12 Student-Academic Triad Psychological Contracts



5.3.2.4.6 Size

One theme which was mentioned extensively as a barrier to an effective pedagogic relationship was the size of the faculty and the numbers of students on a programme. “Mass lectures” (S8) made students feel “pretty lost” (S8) and such “scary environments” (S4) from lecturers with “big scary lecture faces” (S2) made students feel “uncomfortable(S3). Size reduced the opportunity for relationships to develop between the academic lecturer and the student, “I never really expected to have much of a relationship because I knew with the volume of people, it’s hard to” (S5) and as a result student expectations of the lecturer were based on transactional values *e.g.* to inform, to communicate clearly, to provide us with

notes. In return the student expected to have to attend lectures but have minimal input into the learning experience; over time they did become “less dependent on lecturers” (S1). Initially for one particular student this was the biggest issue as the mass lecture structure did not allow for any individuality and this was common with his peers “I had this conversation the other day with one of my friends, I feel like you’re just a number. You know, I’m not ****, I’m just W130 You know what I mean?” (S1).

The issue of size and scale of operations and its impact on student expectations and pedagogic experience has, to the researcher’s knowledge, not been addressed within the educational expectation literature, yet is something which resonates strongly with both academics and students within this research and is a factor which can have a significant impact upon the experience that a student has whilst at university.

5.3.2.4.7 Support

The need for support is a theme across all phases but especially prevalent in the first couple of months (Phase 1). Students need support so that they stop “panicking” (S1) and “worrying” (S3) and, although perhaps not recognisable by the students themselves, this support is being provided:

We got told about the task so I had a go at it, so I would expect her to help me with it and I’ve never done the reference styles and she said that the essay was good but the referencing was weak and I told her that I was really struggling with it and I couldn’t do it because I’d never done it before and she didn’t really help (S1).

Some students fail to recognise the support as their previous experiences of receiving support at school were much different, “at school, teachers were, I wouldn’t say friends but you could pop in and ask them things and they have the time to explain to you and show you, but it’s definitely different, a lot different, it’s a lot more hands off - it’s more at arm’s length” (S1). When students see that they have been given the support they requested it can have a significant impact, “she [the academic] just took it on board and managed to explain it in a good way and made me want to keep continuing [on the programme]” (S2) and “straightaway I feel like my anxiety levels have dropped because they are more supportive and give you a

clear way” (S1). Lack of support from academics for students to deal with other students was also perceived as an issue:

So the lecturer should have been, like, he should have said something to this person, but instead it was, like, brushed off as, ‘Well, it’s your problem as a group you’ll have to deal with it.’ And I was just, like, ‘Well why should I bother trying, like, if that’s how you’re viewing it?’ (S2).

Students also expect “full support” (S3) when they themselves have fulfilled their perceived obligations “I turned up every time and I did all the questions” (S3) and if this support is not given then students are upset and disappointed, “I’m not very happy really because they’re supposed to be there to help and I can’t – if I’m not going to get it, I won’t understand it and then it just makes me worry” (S3). In each instance when students commented on the need for support there was a suggestion that academics should be committed to give this support as the student had done everything which they felt was necessary. This was very much a reciprocal obligation on both parties, supporting the importance of reciprocity in PC.

In summary, the post-entry experiences of students have reshaped their expectations and in some cases the content of their PC with the academics, for example there is no longer the expectation that all academics will be supportive – this is now the role of the seminar tutor. There has also been a prioritisation of expectations – expectations of assessment and feedback are clearly voiced and are not always met. The next section will discuss the theme ‘The Experience’ as perceived by the student identifying the antecedent of breach and fulfilment within the relationship.

5.3.2.5 The Experience

The findings of this research support previous research conducted into PCB where those with less formal power (students) are more likely than those with formal power (academics) to have unmet expectations (Conway & Briner, 2005; Lester *et al.*, 2002) in the relationship. This can be seen by comparing Table 17 with Table 19 which show the antecedents of breach/unmet expectations; students have a greater breadth of causes whereas academics’ antecedents tend to focus around lack of student effort and engagement.

Throughout each phase of interviews students were very vocal regarding any unmet expectations that they had perceived. In line with the literature on PC development, many of

the concerns expressed by student participants in Phase 1 were more likely to be unmet expectations than a breach of their pedagogical relationship *i.e.* students had thought these expectations should be fulfilled as opposed to they had been told/promised by academics that these expectations would be met. This is due to the lack of socialisation which had occurred up to this point and that many of these expectations were directly informed from their previous experiences at school/college. For example, lack of teaching skills, the need to be punctual and the lack of guidance all resonate with practices that occur more within school/colleges, “I expected them to be on time and to be able to teach, but some of them just can’t” (S2). Some students also had expected more empathy from their academics which was not given, “one of my tutors, I had an essay and it’s the first time I’ve ever done this one before, and she didn’t help me that much and I was expecting her to help me more” (S3). These initial expectations were deeply entrenched however and even after socialisation had occurred students still perceived that academics were obligated to meet many of these expectations, hence when they were not met they felt that a breach had occurred.

5.3.2.5.1 Breach

The main antecedents cited by the participants for not meeting their expectations can be seen in Table 5.6. There is much consistency in the reasons across each phase. It would appear that there are three main causes of breach; those occurring when students do not feel supported in their role by their academics, those when students do not feel that academics are performing as their role obligates them to *i.e.* to be able to teach effectively, and those that occur when the student compares their deal unfavourably with that of other students and perceive inequity.

Table 5.6 Antecedents and Outcomes of Breach / Unmet expectations from the Experiences of the Pedagogic Relationship

Causes of Breach		
Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3
<p>Incompetence as a teaching professional (including materials and engagement)</p> <p>Poor attendance (and punctuality)</p> <p>Lack of support/guidance</p> <p>Lack of feedback</p> <p>Lack of respect</p> <p>Lack of preparation</p>	<p>Incompetence as a teaching professional (including materials and engagement)</p> <p>Poor attendance (and punctuality)</p> <p>Inconsistency in marking</p> <p>Lack of support/guidance (linked to assessment and formative feedback)</p> <p>Lack of commitment</p> <p>Don't know my name</p>	<p>Not professional and make mistakes (linked to exams and assessment)</p> <p>Inconsistency in marking</p> <p>Lack of support / guidance (linked to assessment)</p> <p>Lack of feedback</p> <p>Lack of commitment and effort and being there</p> <p>When I have tried and you do not give support</p> <p>Other students' actions</p>
Outcomes		
Behavioural Outcomes		
<p>Do not Attend</p> <p>Less Effort</p>	<p>Do not Attend</p> <p>Less Effort</p>	<p>Do not Attend</p> <p>Less Effort</p>
Emotional Outcomes		
<p>Anxiety/Worry/Stress</p> <p>Annoyance</p> <p>Lost and Confused</p> <p>Frustration</p> <p>Disappointment</p> <p>What about the money?</p>	<p>Loss of hope</p> <p>Nightmares</p> <p>Anger</p> <p>Frustration</p> <p>Defeatism</p> <p>Laugh and Cry</p> <p>Irritation</p>	<p>Annoyance</p> <p>Zoned Out</p> <p>Frustration</p> <p>Disappointment</p> <p>Irritation</p> <p>Becomes a personal issue</p>

5.3.2.5.1.1 Breach – Support and Guidance

Students often feel that academics do not provide sufficient support and guidance. Many had an implicit expectation on entering university that support would be given – this predominantly came from their experiences at secondary/FE level as discussed previously in section 5.3.2.3.4. However one student clearly had an explicit expectation that support and guidance would be given due to the messages that he had received from university personnel at open days where he was told that the faculty offered an “open door policy” (S1) allowing him access to staff as and when it was needed, within reason. There does appear also to be a discrepancy in what students perceive as *being given* support and what academics see as *providing* support. Students want things “explained” (S3), they want their “work checked” (S5) and want “formative feedback” (S5); they want more than a mark scheme as guidance “I mean I’ve been given the mark scheme but there’s only so much I can go off from that” (S5) and they “want the opportunity to discuss” (S6) face to face with their academics their situation without the perception that “God, if you catch them [an academic] in an office, you must have been stalking them because every time you go there’s never anybody there” (S1).

Academics do provide support to students by answering emails “straight away” (S2), after “6 o’clock” (S3) and even “at weekends” (S2) which exceeded students’ expectations initially but as the year progressed and the stakes got higher in terms of the need for support for assessment, students are not as satisfied with this level of support and want more access to their academics. Furthermore, at the beginning of their first term academics did seem to be more prepared to offer students advice and individual support (making the implicit more explicit) but then were perceived to withdraw this, especially around the times of exams and assessment deadlines which brought about a variety of emotional reactions including anxiety, worry and students being “not happy” (S3). One student, who in Phase 1 had commented on how good academics were at replying to his emails, in Phase 3 stated he was disappointed in the fact that when it really counted the academics had let him down, “they just ignored my email and especially when it’s something that’s important about the exam, you need – you want the help and you just don’t get it” (S8). His disappointment was intensified as he had previously experienced prompt replies to his emails.

Students do not tend to be vocal to those in authority in their reactions to these breaches and their response is mainly that of a passive constructive (Rousseau, 1995); one who is silent and ‘makes the best of a bad job.’ However where support was requested and has not been given,

students are seen to rebalance and reassess their relationship with that academic and reduce their contributions “I’ll push back their work and just leave it until I have to do it” (S4). This supports employment psychological literature (Robinson *et al.*, 1994; Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Furthermore, in the employment PC there may be opportunities for employees to retaliate for breach that are unavailable for students who will only damage their own interests by reducing quality and effort.

5.3.2.5.1.2 Breach – Role of the Academic

There are many instances where students perceive that academics are not fulfilling their obligations as an academic teacher, “it sounds stupid but sometimes teachers can’t teach and it’s quite frustrating trying to learn from someone who doesn’t know what they are doing” (S2) and who “I can’t even understand” (S1). Students do not just want to read a PowerPoint slide, “you want to be engaged and not just have to copy something down, you want to know what their view on the subject is” (S4), they want something “extra ...so you don’t want to miss it, but sometimes I find that this is not the case” (S5). They expect their academics to be enthusiastic and to engage them, “just because, if they don’t seem interested in it, I have no real desire to seem interested – because why should I, apparently it’s not that good” (S7). This again suggests the importance of reciprocity within the relationship.

There is the perception on occasion that academics are not being professional – they have not prepared, are late and sometimes do not turn up. Some do not even want to teach “it was just frustrating because he wasn’t even that bothered about being there either” (S6). Students also expect academics to be experts and not to make mistakes, “the slides we sat through for an hour – well at least the last 20 minutes - were delivered all wrong” (S1) and students were particularly concerned when there were numerous mistakes on exam papers, “there’s not been one exam that has been without something wrong on it” (S8) and at university “you think things like that are going to be right It’s sloppy They should check things” (S1).

Another area where students experience academics not meeting their implicit expectations was with assessment and feedback, “marking, I think it’s just crap..... Like, there’s nothing, there’s a tick, there’s a cross. How am I meant to improve on that?” (S1). These students are aspiring, “all he’s written is ‘this is a very good piece of work, well done.’ Well it’s not, it’s

only 65%, so it's not that good" (S1) and knowing how to improve is important to them, "[just] a mark on the frontIt doesn't tell me anything" (S6) and as a result this student "just put it on my desk at home" and did not look at it further. There is an implicit expectation that academics should provide guidance on how to improve further and it is something that students are likely to "whinge about" (S5) and causes "disappointment" (S8).

When breach occurred because students did not feel that academics were performing as their role obligated them to, they responded by decreasing their work effort, "I don't want to do the work" (S4), "I don't really try in the lesson anymore because it's, like, you don't want to – it just doesn't work" (S3) and in some cases they stopped attending, "sometimes I find like – it's not lazy or anything, I don't miss them on purpose but I do sometimes think, 'well I could miss that one,' especially the Friday one when I want to rip my hair out" (S6). This is consistent with the literature on PCB (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2007). It also supports the social exchange literature in that people look for balance in relationships and an absence of balance in the fulfilment of expected obligations may lead to negative consequences (Blau, 1964).

5.3.2.5.1.3 Breach – Lack of Equity and Fairness

When students perceive that there is an injustice they feel violated. There is an implicit expectation that academics should be fair and consistent in their dealings with all students. This makes for a strong relationship. In Phase 1 of the interviews students do not mention issues of unfairness or lack of equity, however in the later phases of interviews examples where academics are deemed to be unfair are more common. This is because trust has been built and is now perceived to be broken.

A significant concern is the inconsistency in marking which "really, really, really annoys me, it does Often lecturers will say 'oh well I wouldn't like to say what grade it will get because it depends who marks it.' It shouldn't depend who marks it, it should be what it is, it should be objective not subjective" (S1). This student went on to talk about the issue that being rewarded for a good piece of work was "like a gamble" and "what's the point of trying as you might get someone good [at marking] or you might not" (S1):

I actually think, I know there'll be no way of proving it, I don't know if you

can do it, but I think if you look at the average grade each lecturer gave in the deviation either side I think they'd all be different. I think maybe certain lectures might give an average of 70% and some might give an average of 50%, some a lot higher. And I know that the three people I've spoken to, they've all been marked by different lecturers and I've just got an inkling, I think if you look at every lecturer's marking, and the deviation either side, I think they would all be different (S1).

Students were also frustrated and concerned when academics did not use their allocated time to "teach them" (S2), "I'm supposed to have a two-hour seminar and the past three have only been an hour" (S5). There was a perception that some students did get "two hours' worth of their time and information" (S2) but that some "didn't get it" (S2) and this was unfair as all students should get the same value. This was also the case when there was information which needed to be communicated to all students as students wanted academics to make sure that "everyone gets the message" (S1) as this is only fair, "but all them other students out there who didn't ask anybody, it was impossible for them to get 15/15" (S1). They also felt aggrieved when academics did not act in a way to make things more equitable, for example when students did not complete work set, "someone sits and does nothing and nothing happens to them so, oh well, I'll just not bother either" (S2) as "what is the point of me doing it" (S6) and "it's a disincentive to do anything because it doesn't seem to matter anyway" (S6).

When students perceive an injustice has occurred, which is not what they expected from academics, their reactions are mainly emotional, they are "angryupset [and] ...annoyed" (S1) not just at the academic but also at other students, who in the eyes of the participants, have not done as expected. They are "irritated" (S8) and "frustrated" but most do not take further formal action although they do discuss these breaches with their peers, "well, in that hour we could have done something more productive that could go towards our final grade and, like, I know *** [name of student] constantly says, '£9,000 for *this*', which makes him sound like such an old man, but sometimes we do get a little bit annoyed" (S5). Two of the participants were course representatives for their programmes and were more likely to voice their concerns at programme meetings with different degrees of success, "we thought it [a change in how something should be delivered] would probably get done next year or in the last few weeks, but it was taken straight away, and that really helped" (S8) and "they listened and he did fix it but nothing has changed" (S1). Only one student was prepared to speak up in seminars when things were not as expected, "I try not to be too direct because I

think it's just a bit mean but I try to say that I don't understand why that was relevant from what we were learning today" (S8). However the way this is said does suggest that students do not like to criticise academics directly. Students were only prepared to voice their concerns in Phases 2 and 3 suggesting that, as newcomers in Phase 1, they were unsure of their position.

To summarise students' perceptions of breach, there have been many instances where breach has occurred resulting in negative emotional reactions and a negative experience, common with the literature (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). There is also evidence to suggest that the actions of the participant students are perhaps not representative of other students as they are more conscientious (Bordia *et al.*, 2010). For example, where breach occurs because the academic was perceived to be inadequate a student participant mentions that many students then simply fail to attend "you saw the numbers go from like 20 to 8 and that was it and they never came back and to be honest, when I looked through my lecture notes I wish I hadn't gone because I got - they were blank so I had wasted - like you would just sit there and we'd all be just looking at each other" (S1). Students high in conscientiousness tend to expect academic success more than their less conscientious peers (Gellatly, 1996) and as a result this may lead to a greater negative impact on PCB on students' psychological well-being (Preckel, Holling & Vock, 2006) rather than an impact on their behaviour such as not attending, as this could jeopardise their potential grade.

The findings are also consistent with social exchange theory and the concept of reciprocation within the PC literature (Levinson, 1965) requiring individuals to respond positively to favourable behaviour received from others and *vice versa*, "if the teacher gives the feeling that they're just there for the sake of being there, then you kind of question why are they there? It's almost like they don't have the motivation to do it so it kind of almost demotivates you, because you don't really want to give anything back, you'll just sit there" (S7).

5.3.2.5.2 Fulfilment

Table 5.7 shows a summary of the antecedents and outcomes of fulfilment from the experiences of the pedagogic relationship as voiced by student participants across the phases. Similar to breach there appears to be three main causes of fulfilment across the phases; those occasions where students feel fully supported in their role by their academics, those when students feel that academics are performing as their role obligates them to *i.e.* they are effective teaching practitioners, and those when students feel known.

5.3.2.5.2.1 Fulfilment – Support and Guidance

When students first arrived at the university they were most fulfilled when academics gave them time, “I’ve popped back to ask a question and they’ve been ‘come in, come in, sit down’ and you were only asking them something very brief” (S1), and were willing to support and check their work, “some tutors, even though they can’t mark your work, they’ll go round and spend two or three minutes checking each one and putting a few notes on and I think that’s really good because they don’t have to” (S1). The level of effort that some academics put in was over and above what many students had expected of them at this stage, “they will put the extra effort in if you need something. I didn’t expect that as much as it’s happening here” (S8). Students were impressed with the support that they received from the academics by email, “replying on weekends and everything” (S2). For one student this support was very important as it made her want “to keep continuing” (S2) on her programme. For others it reduced their “anxiety” (S1), gave them more “confidence” (S4) and “relieved” some of the pressure.

5.3.2.5.2.2 Fulfilment – Role of the Academic

As mentioned previously in section 5.3.2.2 students expect to be taught well. An explicit expectation is that academics plan their sessions, “she plans the sessions really well, they are all sorted!” (S4) and can communicate their ideas effectively; implicit expectations include not making mistakes, being engaging and providing feedback.

Table 5.7 Antecedents and Outcomes of Fulfilment/Met (Exceeded) Expectations from the Experiences of the Pedagogic Relationship

Causes of Fulfilment		
Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3
<p>Support with academic work</p> <p>Time (to chat)</p> <p>Constructive personalised feedback - oral</p> <p>Communication – response quick personal email</p> <p>Good teaching practises (planning and preparation, study notes, <i>etc.</i>)</p>	<p>Support and guidance with academic work</p> <p>Time – personalised individual sessions; use the allocated times within seminars effectively</p> <p>Timely and constructive feedback – written and oral personalised feedback</p> <p>Being listened to</p> <p>Attending extra-curricular events</p> <p>They know me!</p>	<p>Feedback written which can feed forward into future assessments</p> <p>Communication – response quick personal email</p> <p>Good teaching practises (planning and preparation, study notes, <i>etc.</i>)</p> <p>Being listened to</p> <p>Getting something out of the session!</p>
Outcomes		
Behavioural Outcomes		
<p>Attend</p> <p>Remained on the course</p>	<p>Attend</p> <p>Improved understanding</p> <p>Improved performance in exams</p> <p>Wanted to do more independent work</p>	<p>Attend</p> <p>Improved work ethic</p> <p>Better quality work produced</p>
Emotional Outcomes		
<p>Reduced anxiety</p> <p>Relief</p>	<p>Reassured</p> <p>Confidence improved</p> <p>Value for money</p> <p>Improvement in self-worth</p>	<p>Confidence improved</p>

Where teaching was effective and engaging students were willing to attend those sessions even when “it was five to six [pm] on a Monday” (S6) and were enthused, “it feels good going in because it’s a guarantee. There are very few guarantees but I know that when I go [from this seminar] I will leave knowing a little bit more, and I know that knowing that little bit more gets me one step closer to fully understanding it and being able to do it without someone holding my hand through it” (S7).

Where academics exceeded their obligations to students, students responded in kind “I believe I worked harder because he sent me that information because I thought well, if he’s putting the effort in why shouldn’t I be working harder to get the right knowledge?” (S4). They were also more likely to attend, “It makes me enjoy the subject more and I know with loads of people it makes them want to go instead of just miss it” (S5) and it makes them want to be more independent in their learning, “and I ended up wanting to look more into it It was unbelievably good because I wanted to know more” (S7). This suggests that relationships between students and academics are fundamental to attitudes towards learning and that when students perceive that academics care about the outcomes of their studies they gain more confidence and motivation. This was also found to be the case by Thomas (2002). In line with previous findings on assessment and feedback (see section 4.3.2.4.3) in the later phases students expected additional support for assessment and exams, “tips for exams and stuff like that” (S5). When feedback was given well students felt that they had learned something, “they gave us really good feedback, it was very structured, even though [the sessions] are two hours which is a long time for a seminar, I still went because I found I always learned something when I got out of there” (S8) and that they had “just got my money’s worth” (S7), were less “scared” (S7) and “confident” (S3).

5.3.2.5.2.3 Fulfilment – When they know me

Expectations tended to be exceeded when there was a more personal action involved, for example personal feedback on a presentation or a personal response to an email, when they were not “just a number sort of thing” (S1) and when “you go in [to a seminar], you know that they know who you are” (S4). This supports further Thomas’ (2002) point that students seem to be more likely to feel valued and accepted and have a better experience when academics are seen to make an effort to get to know them.

To summarise students' perceptions of fulfilment, it is evident that academics do meet and exceed students' expectations in many instances and when this occurs it creates positive emotional and behavioural outcomes which result in further reciprocity and an improved experience. Fulfilment involves meeting the expectations of students which reinforces trust and feelings of equity and helps students achieve their academic goals.

5.3.2.6 The Relationship

The strength and state of the relationship as perceived by the students will determine the extent to which they feel aggrieved (violated) or satisfied (fulfilled) and subsequently shape their future attitude and behaviour towards the other party (academic). Guest (2004) defines the state of the relationship in terms of "the extent to which promises are kept, how fair they are perceived to be and trust in whether they are likely to be delivered in the future" (p. 6). The findings of this research confirm this. It is also probable that the extent of the reaction to both breach and fulfilment will depend upon the importance students place on that particular issue (Bordia *et al.*, 2013). For example, breach and fulfilment issues surrounding assessment often brought about more intensive emotional reactions, such as anxiety, frustration and stress, than other aspects as 'doing well' was important to these students. Support in assessment was a salient expectation that students had and those issues which were deemed as more important than others resulted in a more intense emotional response, for example inconsistency in marking.

Students' relationships with those academics who know them by name are stronger than those where academics do not know them and they are more likely to be forgiving of these academics if for some reason they do not live up to their expectations, "I do think they should know you on a first name basis or even - not necessarily know you but they should try - some of them have made no attempt to - you know, like, **** [name of academic] said yesterday to one of the girls, 'Still can't get your name right', and it's the end of the year, like, but they'd tried to learn her name, and it's just a difficult name, whereas some of them never try to learn anyone's name"(S1). They are also willing to put in more effort for those academics "when they know my name it does make me want to participate more" (S5) and spend more time on their work, "when they are giving up their time then so should I" (S6).

Students also value relationships where there is consistency in the academic's approach to all students, "so it's not a case that there are rules for some and rules for others, there's just rules and we all have to fit into the rule box and once we're all in the box then everything is fine" (S7). Fairness is of central concern; students expect that what they get from their academics (*e.g.* time, knowledge, good teaching, support and guidance) should be a fair return for what they contribute (*e.g.* attendance, complete work, participate and pay tuition fees) and that their deal is comparable to that of their peers. All students see their relationships with the academics as a reciprocal exchange relationship which throughout the first year unfolds and produces iterative exchange processes. Students will "want to work harder" (S5) for those academics who "reward" (S5) them because "I feel recognised and appreciated" (S5), "it's a two-way thing" (S6) and "if they're giving – making sure – having that respect for you, and kind of giving you their time, then surely they deserve that back" (S6). This is consistent with the literature on employment relationships where mutual high obligations exist (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). However there is a key difference within the findings regarding the pedagogic relationship:

I was just wondering. You've got your list of expectations and if a lecturer meets all those expectations do you expect to give more? That's what I'm asking (R⁹)

I think if a lecturer gave those then I would definitely be more willing to give everything else, but even if they didn't, I probably would still do it, but whether I would actually get as much out of it, probably not (S7)

This perhaps illustrates the issue that students recognise that they have more at stake in this relationship than the academics *i.e.* the range of actions that they have available to them should they feel that their expectations are not being met are limited, as any action may be to the detriment of their personal development and an impediment to goal progression, "at the end of the day we've come here to get a degree to stand out from the rest of the people trying to get a job so I think if they're here to teach us then we should work hard" (S6). Thus, for some, their behaviour is unlikely to change even when they feel aggrieved, but their psychological well-being is affected, leaving them "so lost" (S8), "lost and confused" (S4).

⁹ R = Researcher

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter set out to present the primary research findings from both an academic and student perspective concerning expectations of the pedagogic relationship and the impact that these may have on student experience. Its aim was to synthesise these findings with existing literature in order to better understand and inform the importance of managing these expectations.

This research has found that expectations about the pedagogic relationship are critical to the student experience overall. The students in this sample enter HE with a set of expectations and priorities which are largely consistent. These emphasise the importance of participation and of attendance and broadly concur with the expectations of academics in the same period. In addition there is an implicit expectation that academics will provide learning support and be professional. These early expectations are then subject to revision as their experience in HE progresses and a revised set of expectations emerge. Students now have lower expectations of the supportive role of the academic and are concerned that their expectations regarding assessment and feedback are not being met. They are also more likely to discuss their expectations alongside the payment of tuition fees suggesting a sense of entitlement and frustration that their expectations should be met. The fulfilment or breach of this revised set of expectations is found to be critical to the student experience overall especially those which are seen as salient expectations such as support in assessment and consistency resulting in both behavioural and emotional outcomes.

The research has also found interesting changes in the relative importance of particular expectations as the academic year progresses. Tutors' marking drafts of student work and providing individual feedback does not appear as either an expectation or as important at the beginning of the year but by the end is seen as a significant expectation. Furthermore at the beginning students expected that academics would know their name whilst in the later stages students did not expect this to be the case. This also did impact on student and academic relationships as it was evident that when academics knew students by name the student experience was better and students were more tolerant of academics should their expectations not be met.

A number of further key findings concerning how expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year student experience have been derived from the discussion of the findings of this study and will be discussed in the next chapter. The findings also indicate a number of contributions to the extant academic knowledge and practice concerning the importance of an understanding and management of student expectations of the pedagogic relationship. These contributions are identified and explored within the next chapter where a conceptual framework of the transition process will be presented. Recommendations for further academic research will be made, as well as recommendations for HE practitioners.

CHAPTER 6

Discussions, Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

As stated in the Introduction this study aims to make a contribution to the field of business and management education in HE by exploring the following research question:

How do expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year business and management student experience?

In line with this research question the following research objectives (ROs) were identified:

RO1. To explore first year business students' expectations of their academics within the pedagogic relationship.

RO2. To explore how have these expectations been formed.

RO3. To explore how student expectations of the pedagogic relationship change over the first year.

RO4. To explore academics' expectations and their perceptions of students' expectations regarding the pedagogic relationship.

RO5. To explore the implications of differences between academics' and students' expectations.

RO6. To explore whether an understanding of the psychological contract may explain the reciprocal obligations students and academics have to one another in the context of the present HE environment.

As developed in Chapter 2 the central premise of this thesis is that the pedagogic relationship is at the heart of a successful student experience. Thus a shared understanding of the expectations of the parties to the relationship is critical to ensure a positive experience. The wider social context has played a central role in setting and shaping the framework for contemporary pedagogic relationships. The choice of the PC as a theoretical lens through which to research the pedagogic relationship has not only allowed a focus on students' expectations of the obligations of academics but also has addressed the issue of students' own perceptions of their obligations within the relationship. Furthermore it has shown how their experience affects their perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship. This supports

O'Toole and Prince's findings (2014) and extends their study by using PC theory with a broader range of students.

The discussions that follow will firstly discuss the findings of the study in relation to the research question and objectives, then demonstrate how an understanding of the PC can explain students' and academics' reciprocal obligations in the context of the present HE environment by offering a conceptual framework built around the concept of the PC as a way of analysing, understanding and exploring the contemporary pedagogic relationship. It will close with a discussion of the recommendations to practice that this study offers.

6.2 Discussion

This section of the report will discuss the findings of the research relating to each research objective.

6.2.1 First Year Business Students' Expectations of their Academics within the pedagogic relationship. (R1)

This research has shown that students do expect to have a rewarding and fulfilling pedagogic relationship with their academics and these findings support others in that this relationship is very important to their perceived success (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013; Thomas, 2002). The findings show that students and academics have a number of similar expectations concerning their role obligations, namely attendance, preparation and engagement. These are mainly implicit and derived from previous experience, employing a normative standard of expectation where students and academics hold expectations about what should happen in the pedagogic relationship. Students do hold more relational expectations as there is a greater expectation from them that the academic is prepared to offer more support and guidance than the academic expects and in return students are prepared to put extra effort into their work where this support is given.

There is a suggestion of entitlement from students on occasion concerning their expectations and where this is present it has come about through the transactional focus on the payment of

tuition fees as noted by Bates & Kaye (2014) and Jones (2010), suggesting that there is a service transaction element to the relationship and that the relationship between student and academic is one of service recipient and service provider (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000). Thus there is some evidence to suggest that students do view universities as service organisations with characteristics of a customer-oriented bureaucracy (This will be discussed further in section 6.2.4). However in contrast to those who claim that students increasingly perceive themselves more like a customer in their relationship with their educational providers (Evans, 2007; Jones, 2010), these findings acknowledge that students recognise and expect to play a significant role in ensuring a rewarding pedagogic relationship for both parties. The research findings are therefore more in line with Hoffman & Kretovic (2004) who comment that the student role is multifaceted. In this case students have demonstrated their role as part customer, part co-producer and part learner.

Where expectations are made explicit, students and academics do share an understanding of their stated expectations, promises and obligations. For example when academics are explicit in their instructions and expectations of students during the initial seminars students are more aware of their obligations. However only one student reported having been asked what they expected from their academics, implying that academics did not give themselves the opportunity to gain an awareness of students' implicit expectations of their role obligations.

6.2.2 How have student expectations been formed? (RO2)

This study has found that students' expectations of the pedagogic relationship come from a variety of sources initially (see section 5.3.2.3.1). However for many the most significant factor which had informed their early expectations of the pedagogic relationship at university was that of their previous experiences of teaching and learning within the tertiary sector and the level of support which had been provided to them at their previous institution. This supports Tomprou and Nikolaou (2011) who recognised that previous work experience, in this case previous educational experiences, is one of the main sources of role expectations. However expectations also are formed through hear-say from 'family and peers', through messages given at university open days and from the subliminal impact of the payment of tuition fees which has impacted on students' basic expectation of the level of service which should be provided to them from their academics. This has however also perhaps confused

their expectations as students are uncertain as to how tuition fees have impacted on their relationship with academics and how this should influence their expectations. This is similar to the findings of Bates & Kaye (2014).

6.2.3 How student expectations of the pedagogic relationship change over the first year? (RO3)

This study has also shown that students' and academics' expectations are not set in stone – they can and do change. Students' perceptions of academic obligations changed mainly due to the acquisition of socialisation knowledge which influenced their perceptions of academics' obligations; this supports findings from employment PC literature (Robinson *et al.*, 1994; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). However an important discovery which was not documented in the previous literature is that of the impact of assessment on student expectations and their subsequent experience. Students expect more from the academic in terms of support and guidance in preparation for assessment and this is something which develops as a concern over a period of time and can have a negative impact upon their experience. For example, when students were first asked what their expectations were, 'reading drafts' of their work had not been expected and was not seen as that important, whereas in the later phases of interviews this expectation of more guidance in preparation for coursework deadlines and exam assessments was much more prevalent. The perception for many is that academics do not do enough to support students in this area and there is a desired expectation for academics to be more prescriptive in their support and that it should be more individualised. I would suggest that this is due to students' previous experiences at school/FE where clear, and often individualised, guidance and support are given in preparation for exams/deadlines. Students do see this as an obligation of academics, especially when they have worked hard and attended sessions throughout the academic year.

A further finding regarding student expectations and where they changed over the first year which has been highlighted by this study is the impact of other students on a student's experience – suggesting a student PC with each other. There was an implicit expectation from the student participants that all students would act in a similar manner and have similar needs and wants with respect to their teaching and learning. This over time was found not to be the case and other students were seen to not play their part, causing emotional outcomes such as

frustration and disappointment. This may indicate why students do not like to be involved in group assessments as they have learned that some students will not perform to the required level.

6.2.4 Academics' expectations and their perceptions of students' expectations regarding the pedagogic relationship. (RO4)

Although there were similarities in academic and student expectations of the pedagogic relationship as briefly mentioned in section 6.2.1, this study found that academics now expect to have to exert more physical and emotional energy to ensure first year success (see section 5.3.1.1) supporting the trend seen in pedagogical relationships within secondary and FE (Jephcote, Salisbury & Rees, 2008) which was discussed in section 2.2.1. They also expect that students will want to be spoon fed by their academics in line with past research (Clinton, 2011; James, 2002) and there was a strong perception by academics that students now approach their university education in an instrumental manner which supports Rolfe's (2002) findings.

Furthermore academics have also detected a change in students' perceptions of their own role, with a perception that students now perceive their role more as a consumer than previously. However conversely academics did not perceive their role as one of 'service provider' and they did not expect to have to satisfy the irrational expectations of students – thus clearly indicating that they do not see their role as a front line worker who needs to deliver the customer focused role demanded of them by some students as seen in a customer-oriented bureaucracy (Korczynski, 2004). This suggests that academics do not perceive the pedagogic relationship or the institution as “customer-driven entities” (Koskina, 2011, p. 5).

Academics' expectations have evolved due to the external environment and its pervasive influence over the pedagogic relationship. Changes in the secondary environment and the learning styles employed pre-18 had impacted on their expectations, as too had external changes within HE (*i.e.* the consumerist approach) which had affected the nature of the implicit deal between students and the academic (James, 2002). The basis upon which academics based their beliefs on sixth form teaching methods however was not clear, in line with Rolfe's (2002) findings. None of the academics have any direct involvement with the secondary sector and much of what they recalled was based on anecdotal messages or limited

experience with their own children's education. However, changes in the external environment were perceived by academics to have changed the balance within the relationship to one of 'student under-obligation' (Shore & Barksdale, 1998).

6.2.5 The implications of differences between academics' and students' expectations.

This research objective links specifically to the overriding research question of:

How do expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year business and management student experience?

by looking to investigate whether these differences in expectations, positive or negative, impact on student experience. With regards to student experience, in contrast to some research (Robinson *et al.*, 1994) which showed that PCBs were the norm, the findings of this study seem to suggest that this is not the case and, all things considered, most students receive as much as they were promised by their academics i.e. their basic expectations are met. Results are therefore closer to Lester *et al.*, 2002 and Turnley and Feldman (1988). In line with Bates & Kaye's (2014) findings, this supports the idea that unmet or mismatched expectations and their impact upon experience is not always negative - the students may be frustrated but it has not, overall, impacted upon their experience. This refutes Jones (2010) who suggested that with the increase in fees student expectations would exceed what academics could provide and result in a negative experience.

The findings also present some evidence to suggest that, for some students, when they first arrive at university they become trapped in a liminal space (Land & Rattray, 2014), where they are met with new demands, such as the need to be more independent in their learning, to which they struggle to adapt. This is perhaps because academics and students perceive independent learning in different ways with students seeing it as simply the need to be more organised and work unsupervised whilst academics perceive the need for students to be more proactive and in control of their learning responsibilities.

Breach and feelings of violation do occur for both academics and students with emotional and behavioural consequences. The consequences of breach on the academic's PC was mitigated by their ideological commitments to their professional status and mainly resulted in dissatisfaction and disappointment, supporting Rolfe's (2002) findings. Over the longer term,

successive breaches by students had changed the terms of the PC in the eyes of the academic as most now expected less of the student in terms of their commitment and interest in their degree programme and subsequently this had impacted upon the design of their delivery of programmes.

The consequence of breach of students' PC was often increased 'independence' by the student – an unintended positive consequence. However breach did also lead to strong emotional feelings of anger, frustration and disappointment which were often framed in economic terms as not getting 'value for money.' As Kandiko & Mawer (2013) found, 'value for money' sometimes seemed to offer a lens through which students could reflect on high and low expectations and experiences. When students felt fulfilled it resulted in more behavioural actions than in the case of breach, for example students wanting to do more. This is in comparison to breach where its consequence tended to result in a more emotional response. This is probably as, unlike employees in the employment relationship, students' retaliatory options are limited.

Of concern to some student participants was the fairness of their deal with the academics. Most of the participants in the study had attended and prepared work consistently for all seminars and lectures and felt 'let down' when academics were not willing to provide them with something extra when asked, as they believed that they had delivered on their deal over and beyond what other students had, and that the academics should reciprocate in kind.

Students were aware and took into consideration mitigating factors which perhaps prevented academics from meeting their expectations, for example the size of lectures and the number of seminar groups. However, all students clearly implied that it was their relationship with the academic which impacted upon their university experiences the most. This is in agreement with Koskina (2011) who found that students regarded academics as the key party in the exchange relationship. They recognised that the payment of tuition fees did not specifically entitle them to more explicit contact time but there was the implicit expectation that it should allow them more individual time if requested. Each student felt that they had specific reasons to be seen as an individual and therefore should have their expectations met. This supports the premise that PCs are idiosyncratic and unique to each student (Rousseau, 1995) in terms of content. There was also a recognition by academics that, as students were paying more, there was a feeling that they were more obligated to meet the demands and needs of students but that this was detrimental to the long term development of the student as learner.

6.2.6 Psychological Contract and reciprocal obligations within the pedagogic relationship.

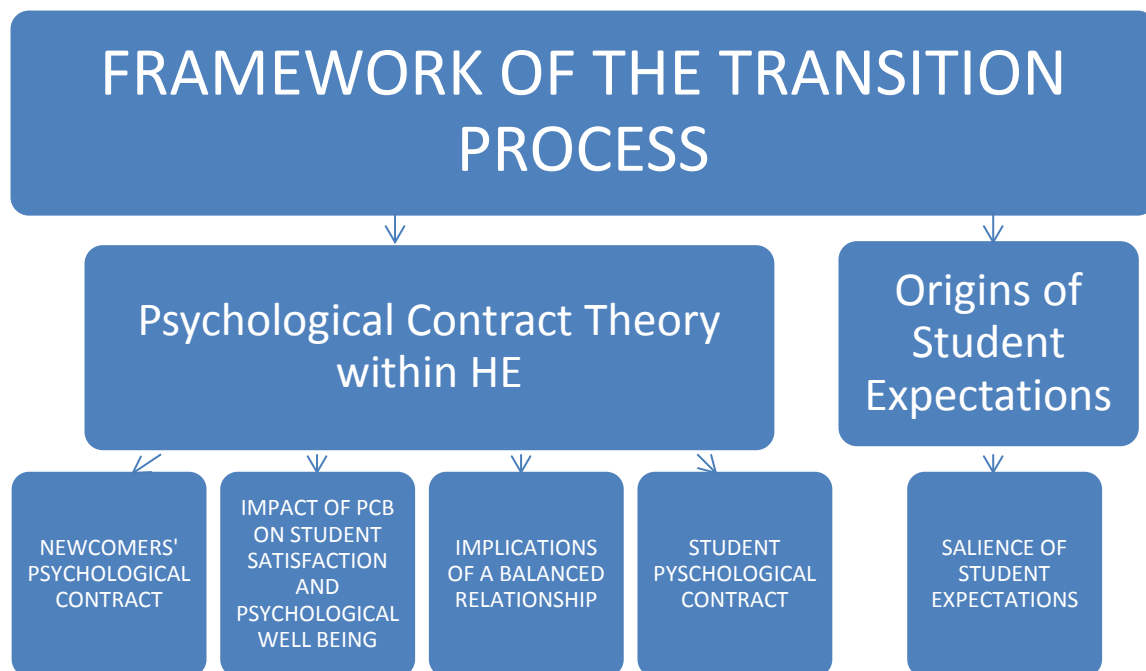
PCs do exist in education between academics and students. Individuals (academics and students) infer promises that give rise to beliefs in the existence of reciprocal obligations between students and academics (Rousseau, 1998). The findings also reveal the dynamic nature of the PC and that mutual reciprocity is at the heart of the PC where the outcomes of exchange at one point in time become a cause of the next cycle of exchange (Conway & Briner, 2005; Nadin & Williams, 2012). For example, at the beginning of the year most students found academics approachable and giving of their time, this subsequently became part of the deal and when, later in the year, this behaviour was perceived to be withdrawn, students felt aggrieved. It has also been shown that existing definitions and conceptualisations of transactional and relational elements do not work in HE relationships between academics and students. The PC does change over time in terms of content and salience and there is also the suggestion that this will continue to happen throughout their time as a student. This has implications for breach and fulfilment if the implicit terms change and the parties are not made aware of them. For example academics intimate that they expect students to become more autonomous learners at L5 and L6 which perhaps is an implicit expectation that students are not aware of and is a potential source of future perceptions of breach of contract.

This section has shown that the findings of the study are significant and that from these a number of contributions are evident to the extant academic knowledge and practice concerning the importance of an understanding and management of student expectations of the pedagogic relationship. These contributions are identified and explored within the next section where a conceptual framework of the transition process will be presented.

6.3 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has extended previous knowledge and understanding of both student expectations and the PC within HE. Figure 29 summarises the contributions made in a hierarchy of significance which also attempts to show the relationship between the contributions which will be outlined in subsequent sections.

Figure 6.1 Summary of Contributions



The most significant theoretical contribution made by this research is that which is represented by the “Framework of the Transition Process” which will now be discussed.

6.3.1 Framework of the Transition Process

The discussions from Chapter 5 and the review of the literature in Chapters 2 and 3 have led to the development of a conceptual, ‘Framework of the Transition Process’ (see Figure 6.2). This framework offers a structure through which first year student and academic relations can be explored and understood. By identifying the range and intensity of unmet expectations/breaches and met expectations/fulfilment from within the pedagogic relationship it allows for a more informed insight into the first year experience. It demonstrates also how an appreciation of the formation and development of the PC can improve understanding of the processes involved in student transition and their perception of their student experience.

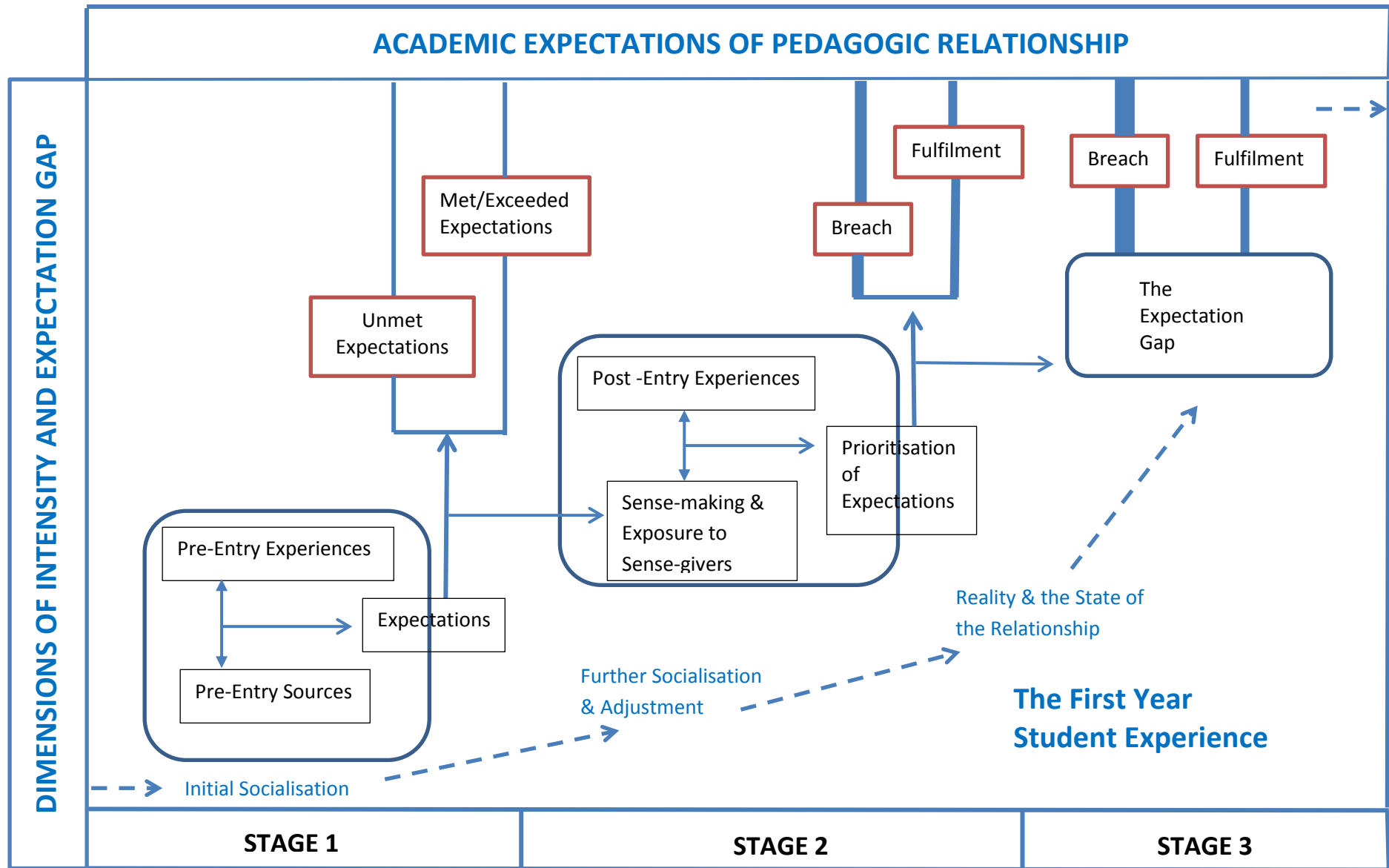
The first year student experience is presented in three stages. Stage 1, in the bottom left-hand corner of the framework, acknowledges the impact that students’ prior expectations can have and maintains a focus on the wider context in which this research sits. For example

expectations have become increasingly influenced by the impact of higher tuition fees and the change in pedagogic relations with teachers at secondary and tertiary level.

It has been noted in section 5.3.2.3.1 that some students perceive that they have few explicit pre-entry expectations concerning the pedagogic relationship at university; however they do hold implicit expectations, as demonstrated through the quantitative survey and Phase 1 interviews, and these are broadly anticipated by academics *e.g.* that some support will be needed by students from academics whilst at university and that academics are committed to provide this. The differences occur in how the parties perceive 'support,' with students wanting more detailed, precise support through greater feedback and personalised individualised comments and academics seeing it as the effective delivery of content in seminars/lecturers followed up if necessary with additional email guidance.

Students' initial expectations tend to be formed by their previous educational experiences. On the occasions when their prior expectations have been formed through their interactions with the university and academics at the university they are seen to be explicit obligations of the academic and the academic is held accountable to deliver them. For example at an open day, one academic mentioned that the faculty had an 'open door' policy which led at least one student to believe that all academics should be committed to providing students with support as and when it was needed. Stage 1 demonstrates further that during students' initial socialisation period these pre-entry experiences inform their expectations of the new pedagogic relationship and it is through this cognitive schema that some expectations are met and/or unmet. The array of these met/unmet expectations may be large and wide ranging but their significance (intensity) to the student is variable. This is represented in the framework by the length of line indicating the range of issues, whilst its width indicates the intensity of the issues.

Figure 6.2 Framework of the Transition Process



At this stage the specific content of their relationship also starts to form, for example perceptions of the academic's obligation to give support, be available for guidance and be able to teach. These are prioritised in accordance with the needs of the individual student. This framework thus responds to calls for the need to understand the sources of students' perceptions of the pedagogic relationship (Koskina, 2011) and also provides further insights into the potential distinctions in perceptions of learning between academics and students (Bates & Kaye, 2014).

At Stage 2, shown in the centre of the framework, students become more acclimatised to their new environment and have been more exposed to experiences within the business school which have the potential to fulfil expectations or be interpreted as a breach. This is the stage at which some of their previous expectations are seen to become more important to students than others. It is this prioritisation and adjustment of expectations that is often implicit and where the distinctions in perceptions of learning between academics and students become more pronounced. For example, as assessment deadlines approach the failure of academics to provide expected guidance is particularly notable. Here the range of met/unmet expectations reduces but the intensity of the outcome is more definite and pertinent causing breach or fulfilment of expectations.

At Stage 3 students are able to assess and reflect upon whether their expectations have been met or breached. Fulfilment of their expectations leads to positive perceptions and outcomes towards their student experience and encourages positive behavioural outcomes such as attendance and participation. In contrast, breach of their expectations can lead to negative emotional reactions and a negative experience, although the extent of the negative experience depends upon how the academic subsequently reacts and the state of the relationship which existed between the student and the academic. Thus the framework supports the notion that breach or a perceived breakdown of an exchange is a discrete event, whereas fulfilment is not. Fulfilment, as Rousseau (1995) highlights, is on a continuum shaped by the state of relationships and individual parties' behaviours. The range of breach and fulfilment of expectations is further reduced but the strength and intensity of feeling and its personal significance is much greater at this stage; again depicted in the framework by wider, squatter lines. It is also this stage which then informs the student's PC with academics in future years.

This framework suggests a standard approach to student transition and student experience of the pedagogic relationship which resulted also in the production of the generalisations (see

section 5.3.2). It demonstrates that many students do have a shared understanding of mutual commitments and the extent to which they have been met or breached, suggesting the possibility of the basis of a normative contract. However the study has also found that the expectations that cause breach/fulfilment can differ across students but that the general intensity of the breach/fulfilment remains common as indicated in the framework.

In summary, the first knowledge contribution is the framework which provides a valuable visible insight into the student/academic PC within education which to date has been under-researched both in education studies and in the wider PC literature (Bordia *et al.*, 2013; Clinton, 2009; Koskina, 2011; O'Toole & Prince, 2014). This framework is now available for other researchers to use and develop in other HE contexts. Furthermore it has extended knowledge and understanding of PC formation which, again, has been under-researched (Bordia *et al.*, 2013; De Vos *et al.*, 2005; Guest, 2004a) by exploring the entire psychological contracting process from the formation to outcomes, from students' and academics' perspectives. This has illustrated the dynamic aspect of the theory and its adaptability from the employment relationship to the pedagogic relationship.

6.3.2 Psychological Contract Theory

The second significant knowledge contribution that this study has made is the use of PCs within HE.

Firstly it has shown that PCs do exist in education between students and academics. This study has demonstrated that both parties have expectations and reciprocal obligations within the relationship. For example students expect that they should attend and be prepared for taught sessions and in return they expect the academic to be able to teach effectively and give adequate feedback, support and guidance.

These obligations may vary between individuals and their previous experience and may not be explicit. For example many students starting university now have previously received substantial support and assessment guidance from their secondary/FE teachers and they perceive this as an obligation of academics even though academics have not promised this level of support. Academics need to recognise these implicit expectations and 'renegotiate'

the pedagogic relationship contract with students so that each party is more aware of the other's commitments.

Furthermore, changes in the context of the present HE environment have brought about changes in the meanings of terms within HE. This study has shown both student and academic identities are influenced by changes. For example with the increase in fees, students have seen their role become less clear and there is a consumerist aspect to their relationship; academics have realised the need to become more accommodating of student needs and adapt their pedagogy.

The second contribution concerning the PC is to our understanding of the creation of a newcomers' PC. This study has established that when students are first creating their PC with academics they are more likely to reduce their own expectations and the academics' obligations, in light of their experiences, than to claim breach. This appears to be due to a power imbalance in their initial encounters, where the student is deferential to the academic, regarding them as the source of authority. It is only as the relationship develops that students begin to feel less charitable towards the perceived misdemeanours of academics and start to feel breach.

The third contribution is that this study has further extended our understanding of the impact of PCB on student satisfaction and psychological wellbeing by supporting Bordia *et al.*'s findings (2010) that those students high in conscientiousness experience stronger negative effects of breach on psychological wellbeing compared to students low in conscientiousness. Those students that took part in this study were deemed high in conscientiousness and displayed strong attitudinal outcomes to PCB.

The findings have also shown that the level of reaction to both breach and fulfilment will depend not only upon the specific component within the PC in question but also upon the importance that students place on that component (Bordia *et al.*, 2013), with expectations of assessment and feedback, guidance and support eliciting the strongest reaction from students due to their focus on high achievement.

A further contribution towards the employment PC literature is that the study has shown that there is a relationship between fulfilment/breach and work ethic. When students and academics perceive that their expectations are not being met or where there is a lack of balance in the relationship, this impacts on their behaviour, for students a lack in attendance

and preparation and increased anxiety, and for academics a perceived increase in job dissatisfaction. This supports the findings of Zhao *et al.* (2007).

This study has shown that differences do exist between student and academic expectations and that, in the main, students expect more of their academics than academics expect from them. This suggests an unbalanced relationship with students being under-obligated (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). When students' expectations are not met they do perceive a breach of their PC and this causes emotional and behavioural outcomes. However the extent of reciprocal student action is limited due to the perception that such action would damage the student themselves. This suggests a key difference between the employment PC and that of the HE student/academic PC in recognising that there are fewer actions available to the student when they perceive that a breach has occurred. Many courses of action which are available to employees are not appropriate within the student context as the outcome is more likely to damage their own interests. Students, unlike those in employment contracts, do not necessarily reduce their efforts as this only impacts upon their future grade – however breaches of expectations may cause more harm in the future by damaging the reputation of the faculty with future students.

The final contribution that this study makes to our understanding of PCs is the recognition that PCs also exist between students. Students have expectations and obligations towards and of their peers and when these obligations are not met this also impacts upon their learning experience, which can result in a negative experience. This is especially the case in group work and group discussions. This is an issue, considering the importance of group-work and team-work skills for future employability. More research is required into this relationship and its impact upon the student-to-student PC.

6.3.3 Origins of Student Expectations

The third significant contribution that this work makes is to our understanding of the origins of student expectations when they arrive at university. This study has extended previous work examining the expectations of students by exploring the origins of these expectations (Guest, 1988) and the impact of the context in which they were made (Guest, 2004b). It contributes to the 'student as customer' debate by providing evidence to support the argument that students

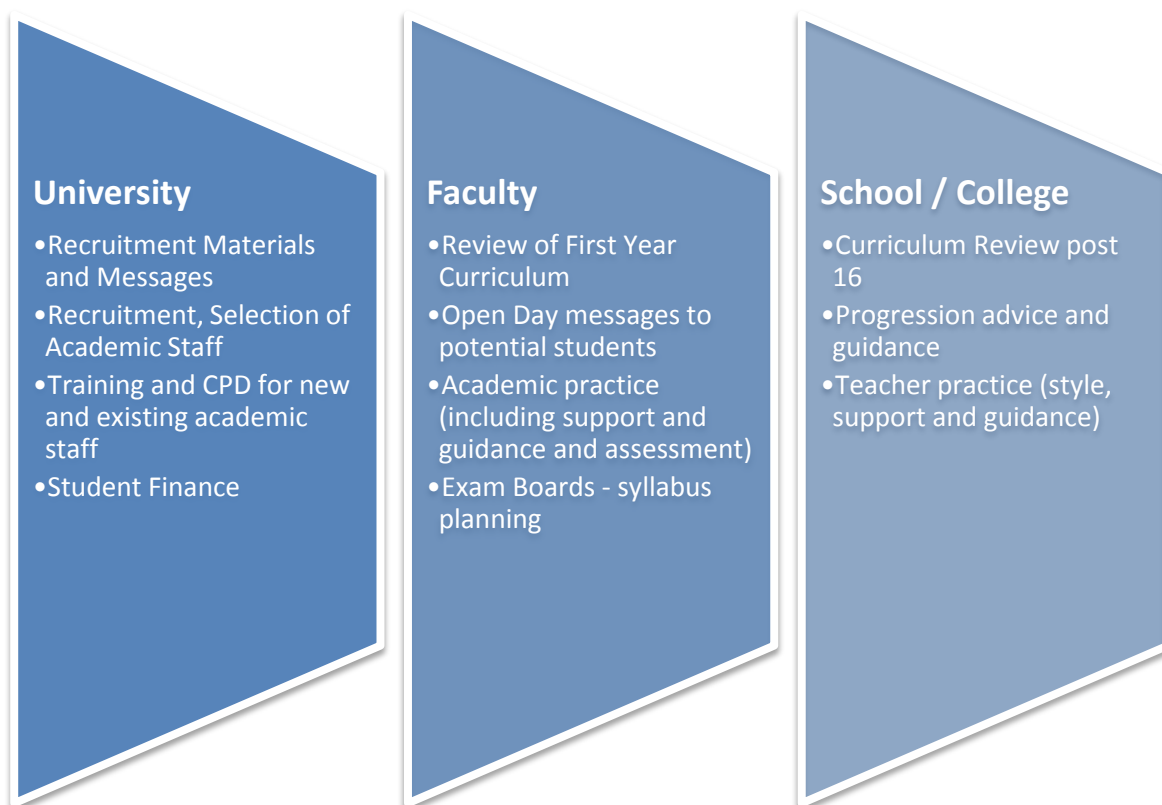
do not perceive themselves *per se* as a customer in the relationship and that they recognise they have responsibilities within the learning process. It shows students as playing a key role in a social exchange as opposed to a client paying for their education who waits passively to receive it. However the increase in tuition fees has impacted upon balance within the relationship, with students being under-obligated (*i.e.* they owe the relationship less than academics do). This has been supported by the changes which have occurred in the pedagogic relationship at secondary level where teachers have increasingly ‘spoon fed’ students, which could be seen as teachers over-obligating (Shore & Barksdale, 1998) their role within the relationship leading to an expectation that this will continue in HE.

The study has also contributed to our understanding of the relative importance of students’ expectations within the pedagogic relationship. For example expectations of support and guidance for assessment are salient to students and will impact upon student experience if not met.

6.4 Recommendations for Practice

This thesis forms a DBA and in accordance with the associated professional practice focus, recommendations are now made to improve the first year pedagogic student experience. The study has practical implications for a wide range of stakeholder groups as identified in Figure 6.3 and has highlighted the importance of structuring students’ expectations as a means of aligning them more effectively with those of academics to aid integration and successful student experience.

Figure 6.3 Recommendations for Practice: Stakeholder Implications



6.4.1 Implications for University

Understanding what students expect from the pedagogic relationship within HE provides useful evidence for informing institutional policies, procedures and curriculum planning. This will be particularly important within the pre-application and induction processes in which the university has a responsibility to ensure that its prospective students are well informed of what the student experience will be. This study has shown that, in particular, it is important to consider how to explain the roles of academics, procedures involving assessment and the goals of the autonomous and independent learner.

It is also recommended that existing outreach programmes within the university are informed by the result of the study to provide students with experience and information of guidance and assessment and the level of support to be anticipated.

Student expectations do need to be managed better pre-entry. University agents need to be trained to deliver accessible and appropriate information stating clearly the pedagogic experience that is offered, what its commitments and obligations are to the student and *vice*

versa. Knowledge of the creation and development of the PC can help admissions and marketing departments within the university to produce selection and recruitment material which provides realistic perceptions of what students can expect from the pedagogic relationship and academics.

Finally, from a university perspective, this study identified that students have a limited understanding of the finance structure concerning their fees and ‘where the money goes.’ This lack of clarity has resulted in students’ misconceptions of what they can expect from their tuition fees. It is recommended that the university rectifies this by clearly detailing how the fee structure works and what represents ‘value for money’ under such a scheme.

6.4.2 Implications for Faculty

This study showed that students in their first year value academics who can engage effectively and who have practical work-related experience in their field to draw upon when disseminating information. When these expectations are not fulfilled students perceive a frustrating and disappointing breach of their PC. There is an expectation that all academics should have a recognised teaching qualification and/or relevant experience and it is important therefore within faculty that this is the case. It is further recommended that, within communications to prospective students, this is highlighted and the faculty continues to ensure that all academic staff receive professional development in teaching and learning or recruits academics with appropriate experience. It would be interesting to see whether this finding holds in less vocational disciplines within the sector.

This study also provides grounds for reconsidering recruitment and selection procedures used for new staff within the faculty and monitoring their ongoing professional development. If minimum teaching expectations can be seen as a minimum benchmark – academic expertise in the area and an ability to teach is a priority for good student experience and must be reflected in recruitment and selection procedures. Seminar tutors are recognised by students as being the main source of support and guidance. Students are more likely to expect advice from seminar tutors than their lecturers. This further suggests the importance of seminars in creating a positive student experience for first years. This has implications for work-load planning and for the structure of seminar sessions – giving more time perhaps to an academic

support role or looking to appoint assistant instructors, as in HE in America, who can support the teaching and advising of UGs.

Findings from the study will also provide evidence for modifications to our curriculum planning. The model has shown that students' expectations change and develop over the course of the first year, hence the expectation gap changes. Currently the induction programme that students are involved in mainly takes place in the first week of enrolment and is a 'one shot' event. The findings suggest that, as the content of the exchange with the academic becomes more known to students, expectations change and there is a need therefore for further activities where expectations of students and academics at these different time periods can be shared so that implicit expectations can become more explicit.

The findings also imply that, as a profession, there is an expectation from academics that students will 'fit into' the existing structure and its institutional habitus. This study has shown that it would be useful to identify the characteristics of the faculty's habitus to ensure that it is in line with the expectations of its students and that it is communicated to students explicitly (Thomas, 2002). It is recognised that the habitus involves a complex and varied network of predispositions which are unlikely to change over the short term, however this study suggests a need for the faculty and its academics to develop a different approach in how it perceives giving support and guidance to its students to ensure a positive student experience, redrawing their perceptions of the "implied student" (Ulriksen, 2009).

A recurring theme in the discussions is that students initially want more close support. From the academics' perspective this is at odds with the need for students to develop and equip themselves with skills needed to be an autonomous learner. In order for this gap to be bridged there is a need for the faculty and academics to review the curriculum and ask whether the profession expects students to make too big a change too quickly and to consider a more iterative approach towards independent learning which is explicitly detailed to students with the involvement of all academics.

Academics must also be careful as to what they 'promise' at induction. This includes promises made explicitly in their verbal communications and implicitly through their behaviour. A supportive academic at the beginning of the year creates an expectation that all academics should be like this throughout the year; these types of expectations create obligations on academics which when not fulfilled damage the pedagogic relationship and

student experience. As a body, academics must have consistent role obligations which are seen as fair and are delivered by all.

6.4.3 Implications for School/College

This study has shown that students' expectations of the pedagogic relationship and the relationship that they will hold with their university teachers is initially informed by their past relationships with teachers at school/college which perhaps is at variance with the independent study expected by academics in HE (Jones, 2010). It is crucial that students are exposed earlier to the skills and qualities which are required for them to succeed at university and this means that schools/colleges and HE need to be involved more in the development of their curricula to ensure a fluid transition.

There is also a need for schools/colleges to review the progression advice and guidance that they give to students post-16 as there is evidence to suggest that the information they give to students about what they can expect from the pedagogic relationship at university is outdated and can create unrealistic expectations. There is a recommendation that post-16 teachers spend time in the contemporary university, and academics in the school classroom, to understand further the pedagogy employed in the different sectors so that more appropriate and timely guidance can be given.

As with implications for faculty there is a need for more understanding and knowledge of the different styles of pedagogy across the sectors. Potential students need to be better prepared by their teachers for learning at HE and academics need to look at what they deliver and as a profession recognise that perhaps we are expecting students to make too big a change too soon and that a more stepped progression programme should be introduced.

6.4.4 Implications for Me as a Practitioner in Education

This study came about in part because of my personal transition from high school teacher to senior lecturer and my desire to make a difference to the pedagogic experience of L4 students during their personal transition from school pupil to UG student. My "special task" as

Cronbach (1975) states was “to pin down the contemporary facts to gain insight into [this] contemporary relationship” (p. 126). I believe this study has done this.

The new knowledge gained will impact upon my professional practice. As a senior lecturer and as a module tutor within a business school I will reflect upon the delivery of the curriculum, with a view to ensure that time for support of students is accommodated in academics’ workloads and that student transition is seen as a continuum and not as a one-off induction event. I will also look at my own personal delivery of content to make sure that my expectations of students are explicitly stated, as are my commitments to them and *vice versa*. I will use my influence within the subject group and department to extend these improvements to other modules at L4.

A final implication for me in my role of Schools Liaison Officer is to provide opportunities for teachers and academics to meet and discuss their development needs in delivering their respective curricula so that students are able to effectively make a smooth transition from school to university.

6.5 Recommendations for Future Research

The present study offers a number of opportunities for further research into student expectations and the use of the PC in education. These will be outlined below.

Evidence from this study suggests that academics have a limited understanding of students’ previous pedagogic relationships and hold a view that this previous relationship at secondary level has poorly equipped them for a future as an autonomous learner. As a consequence it is proposed that further research is conducted into academics’ understanding of the pedagogic relationship at school/college and also of school/college teachers’ expectations of the pedagogic relationship at university, with the purpose of addressing the differences in learning expectations between the two levels of education – in effect working towards a ‘joined up curriculum of learning expectations’ – so that the transition between the two sectors for students may become more transparent and fluid.

Furthermore, more detailed research into the expectations of academics at different stages of their career may be beneficial as this may highlight a difference in academics’ expectations

dependent on their work life cycle which may account for why academics have a narrower range of causes of breach within their pedagogic relationship than students, as they may have already adjusted their expectations as a result of their previous experiences.

This study has also shown that the scale and size of a programme does impact upon student expectations, hence student experience. To this end it is suggested that further research be conducted on the impact of scale on the student learning experience, as to date this focus does appear rather limited. This should be considered from the perspective of both the academic and the student as both parties in this study commented on how size had shaped their expectations of the pedagogic relationship.

The importance of the student expectation concerning assessment guidance and feedback was highlighted in the findings and supports the need for further research into assessment and feedback of student work within the first year at university. For example how are assessments presented to students, what level of support should be given, when and in what format should feedback be provided to improve the student learning experience?

The findings of this research have also indicated that an important relationship within the first year student learning experience is that which exists between students and their peers. Students have implicit expectations of their peers which when not met impacts upon their learning. There is a need for further research into this area to determine the significance and the potential impact this may have upon student experience. This is especially important when linked to assessment, as for some modules students are assessed as part of a group effort and an understanding of their commitments to each other becomes even more salient.

The data collected from this study may serve as secondary data for a future longitudinal study into the changing nature of student and academic expectations as they progress through their degree programme and the impact this has upon their PC. This would prove useful in examining when and if readjustments are made to the PC and the impact thereof.

Finally an extension of this study may take the form of a comparative research design where the expectations of business undergraduates may be compared to those of students from other faculties to ascertain whether all students have broadly similar expectations of their pedagogic experience.

The findings of the study provide a sound basis for further research to be conducted which can further inform future practice.

In conclusion, PCs do exist in education between academics and students; a greater knowledge and understanding of them can help to align teaching styles, educational content and the general learning environment with student needs and expectations, resulting in an improved student experience. This study has shown that there are differences in expectations between academics and students and that this can lead to feelings of violation for both parties with emotional and behavioural consequences. It is suggested however that not all cases of unmet expectations lead to a negative consequence or experience for the student and that students go through a transition process within the academic year where the content of their PCs is readjusted in light of their experiences.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter concludes the thesis. It has explored the research question ‘How do expectations of the pedagogic relationship affect the first year experience?’ and further investigated into student transition and its impact on student experience. It has identified the study’s contribution to knowledge and made recommendations for practice in line with the aims and objectives of a professional doctorate. The chapter concluded by identifying future research projects to further enhance our understanding of students’ and academics’ expectations of the pedagogic relationship and its impact on student experience. The study has thus strengthened and supported the argument that a successful pedagogic relationship is critical to ensure a positive student experience whilst demonstrating how the concept of PC can be utilised within HE to explain the reciprocal obligations between students and academics.

The last personal reflection on the importance of this work comes once more from Terry Pratchett (2009):

Learning had to be digested. You didn't just have to know, you have to comprehend.

This statement and the research conducted has emphasised even more to me the importance of the state of the pedagogic relationship in HE and the need for reciprocity between academics and students to ensure a positive learning experience for all parties involved. The sector needs to “perfect various devices” (see Pratchett’s quote, Chapter 1) to ensure that this occurs. It is also to be noted that the rather pessimistic sentiments previously expressed by

Pratchett (1994) in Chapter 1 regarding the state of the pedagogic relationship have not been evidenced in this research.

REFERENCES

- Blame the system, not teachers, for any 'cheating'. (2014, 15 April 2014). Opinion. *The Daily Telegraph*. Retrieved from <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/education/educationopinion/10765063/Blame-the-system-not-teachers-for-any-cheating.html>
- Abrantes, J. L., Seabra, C., & Lages, L. F. (2007). Pedagogical affect, student interest, and learning performance. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(9), 960-964. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.10.026>
- Acevedo, A. (2011). Business ethics 101: The student is not a customer. *International Journal of Management Education*, 9(3), 1-11.
- Ahmed, I., Ismail, W. K. W., Amin, S. M., & Islam, T. (2014). Role of perceived organizational support in teachers' responsiveness and students' outcomes: evidence from a public sector university of Pakistan. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 28(2), 246-256.
- Alves, H., & Raposo, M. (2007). Conceptual model of student satisfaction in higher education. *Total Quality Management*, 18(5), 571-588.
- Anderson, G. L., & Jones, F. (2000). Knowledge generation in educational administration from the inside out: the promise and perils of size-based, administrator research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 36(3), 428-464.
- Anderson, R. (2010). The 'Idea of a University' today. *History and Policy*. Retrieved from <http://www.historyandpolicy.org/policy-papers/papers/the-idea-of-a-university-today>
- Appleton-Knapp, S. L., & Krentler, K. A. (2006). Measuring Student Expectations and Their Effects on Satisfaction: The Importance of Managing Student Expectations. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 28(3), 254-264. doi: 10.1177/0273475306293359
- Archer, L. (2007). Diversity, equality and higher education: a critical reflection on the ab/uses of equity discourse within widening participation. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 12(5-6), 635-653.
- Argyris, C. (1960). *Understanding organizational behaviour*. London: Tavistock.
- Armstrong, M. J. (2003). Students as Clients: A Professional Services Model for Business Education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2(4), 371-374. doi: 10.5465/amle.2003.11901964
- Armstrong, M. S. (2001). *Women leaving heterosexuality at mid-life: Transformation in self and relations* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). York University, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- Astin, A. W. (1970). The methodology of research on college impact, part two. *Sociology of Education*(43), 437-450.

- Bailey, J. J. (2000). Students as clients in a professional/client relationship. *Journal of Management Education*, 24(3), 353-365.
- Barandiaran-Galdós, M., Ayesta, M. B., Cardona-Rodríguez, A., del Campo, J. J. M., & Olaskoaga-Larrauri, J. (2012). What do teachers think about quality in the Spanish university? *Quality Assurance in Education*, 20(2), 91-109.
- Barrie, S. C. (2006). Understanding what we mean by the generic attributes of graduates. *Higher Education*, 51(2), 215-241.
- Barrie, S. C. (2007). A conceptual framework for the teaching and learning of generic graduate attributes. *Studies in Higher Education*, 32(4), 439-458.
- Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations*, 61(8), 1139-1160.
- Bates, E. A., & Kaye, L. K. (2014). "I'd be expecting caviar in lectures": the impact of the new fee regime on undergraduate students' expectations of Higher Education. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 655-673.
- Bay, D., & Daniel, H. (2001). The student is not the customer—An alternative perspective. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 11(1), 1-19.
- Beaumont, C., O'Doherty, M., & Shannon, L. (2011). Reconceptualising assessment feedback: a key to improving student learning? *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(6), 671-687. doi: 10.1080/03075071003731135
- Biesta, G. (2010). Pragmatism and the philosophical foundations of mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of Mixed Methods Research for the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (2 ed.): Sage.
- Blaikie, N. (1993). *Approaches to Social Enquiry Polity*. Cambridge: Press.
- Blau, P. (1964). *Power and exchange in social life*. New York: J Wiley & Sons.
- Bochner, A. P. (2000). Criteria against ourselves. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 6(2), 266-272.
- Booth, A. (2005). Worlds in collision: university tutor and student perspectives on the transition to degree level history. *Teaching History*, 121, 14-19.
- Bordia, S., Bordia, P., & Restubog, S. L. D. (2013). Promises from afar: a model of international student psychological contract in business education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 1-21. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2013.823935
- Bordia, S., Hobman, E. V., Restubog, S. L. D., & Bordia, P. (2010). Advisor–Student Relationship in Business Education Project Collaborations: A Psychological Contract

Perspective. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40(9), 2360-2386. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00662.x

Bourdieu, P. (1993). *Sociology in Question*. London: Sage.

Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1990). *Reproduction in education, society and culture* (Vol. 4): Sage.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.

Briggs, A. R. J., Clark, J., & Hall, I. (2012). Building bridges: understanding student transition to university. *Quality in Higher Education*, 18(1), 3-21. doi: 10.1080/13538322.2011.614468

Brinkworth, R., McCann, B., Matthews, C., & Nordström, K. (2009). First year expectations and experiences: student and teacher perspectives. *Higher Education*, 58(2), 157-173. doi: 10.1007/s10734-008-9188-3

Broadbridge, A., & Swanson, V. (2005). Earning and learning: how term-time employment impacts on students' adjustment to university life. *Journal of Education and Work*, 18(2), 235-249.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business Research Methods* (3 ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryson, C., & Hand, L. (2007). The role of engagement in inspiring teaching and learning. *Innovations in education and teaching international*, 44(4), 349-362.

Bryson, C., McDowell, L., McGugan, S., & Sander, G. (2014). *A relationship heading for divorce? Assessment, trust and student engagement*. Retrieved from http://www.brookes.ac.uk/aske/documents/bryson_mcdowell.pdf

Buckley, A., Soilemetzidis, I., & Hillman, N. (2015). *The 2015 Student Academic Experience Survey*. The Higher Education Academy.

Bunce, L., Baird, A., & Jones, S.E. (2016). The student as consumer approach in higher education and its effects on academic performance. *Studies in Higher Education*. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2015.1127908

Bunderson, J. S. (2001). How work ideologies shape the psychological contracts of professional employees: Doctors' responses to perceived breach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(7), 717-741.

Burr, R., & Thomson, P. (2002). *Expanding the Network: What about Including the All in the Psychological Contract*. Paper presented at the Conference Proceedings: Academy of Management Conference.

- Bush, T. (2012). Authenticity in research: reliability, validity and triangulation. In A. R. J. Briggs, M. Coleman, & M. Morrison (Eds.), *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management* (3 ed., pp. 75-89). London: Sage.
- Busher, H., & James, N. (2012). The ethical framework of research practice. In A. R. J. Briggs, M. Coleman, & M. Morrison (Eds.), *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management* (3 ed., pp. 90-104). London: Sage.
- Byrne, M., & Flood, B. (2005). A study of accounting students' motives, expectations and preparedness for higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 29(2), 111-124.
- Campbell, D. T. (1975). III. "Degrees of Freedom" and the Case Study. *Comparative Political Studies*, 8(2), 178-193. doi: 10.1177/001041407500800204
- Cappelli, P., & Sherer, P. D. (1991). The missing role of context in OB-the need for a meso-level approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 13, 55-110.
- Charlton, J. P., Barrow, C., & Hornby-Atkinson, P. (2006). Attempting to predict withdrawal from higher education using demographic, psychological and educational measures. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 11(1), 31-47.
- Clewes, D. (2003). A Student-centred Conceptual Model of Service Quality in Higher Education. *Quality in Higher Education*, 9(1), 69-85. doi: 10.1080/13538320308163
- Clinton, M. (2011). Managing Students' and Teachers' Expectations of Higher Education: A Psychological Contract Approach. *Higher Education Research Network Journal*, 23.
- Coaldrake, P., & Stedman, L. (2001). Responding to changing student expectations. *Higher Education Management*, 13(2), 75-93.
- Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2009). *Business Research: A Practical Guide for Undergraduate and PostGraduate Students* (3rd ed.). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Conway, N., & Briner, R. B. (2005). *Understanding psychological contracts at work: Critical evaluation of theory and research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Conway, N., & Briner, R. B. (2009). Fifty years of psychological contract research: What do we know and what are the main challenges. *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, 21, 71-131.
- Cook, A., & Leckey, J. (1999). Do expectations meet reality? A survey of changes in first-year student opinion. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 23(2), 157-171.
- Corbin Dwyer, S., & Buckle, J. L. (2009). The Space Between: On being an Insider-Outsider in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 54-63.
- Cousin, G. (2005). Case Study Research. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 29(3), 421-427.

- Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., & Shore, L. M. (2007). The employee–organization relationship: Where do we go from here? *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(2), 166-179.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. M. (2002). A psychological contract perspective on organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(8), 927-946.
- Crabtree, H., Roberts, C., & Tyler, C. (2007). *Understanding the problems of transition into higher education*. Paper presented at the 4th Education in a Changing Environment Conference.
- Craig, J. (2015). *Enhancing Teaching and Learning: Meeting the challenges in a changing sector*. Paper presented at the Association of Business Schools: Learning, Teaching and Student Experience York.
- Crawford, F. (1991). White Paper on Higher Education: Quality Issuing Total Quality Management: Discussion paper prepared for the Committee of Vice Chancellors and Committee of Principals (CVCP).
- Cresswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among five perspectives*. London: Sage.
- Cresswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Sage Publications.
- Crisp, G., Palmer, E., Turner, D., Nettlebeck, T., Ward, L., LeCouteur, A., Sarris, A., Strelan, P., & Schneider, L. (2009). First year student expectations: Results from a university - wide student survey. *Journal of University Teaching and Learning Practice*, 6(1). Retrieved from: <http://ro.uow.edu.au/jutlp/vol6/iss1/3>
- Cronbach, L. J. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist*, 30(2), 116-127.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900. doi: 10.1177/0149206305279602
- Crotty, M. (2006). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Cullinane, N., & Dundon, T. (2006). The psychological contract: A critical review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 8(2), 113-129.
- Dahlberg, K., Dahlberg, H., & Nystrom, M. (2008). *Reflective lifeworld research*. Stockholm: Studentlitteratur.
- Darlaston-Jones, D., Pike, L., Cohen, L., Young, A., Haunold, S., & Drew, N. (2003). Are they being served? Student expectations of higher education. *Issues in Educational Research*, 13.
- Darmody, M., & Fleming, B. (2009). ‘The balancing act’–Irish part-time undergraduate students in higher education. *Irish Educational Studies*, 28(1), 67-83.

- De Vos, A., Buyens, D., & Schalk, R. (2003). Psychological contract development during organizational socialization: Adaptation to reality and the role of reciprocity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5), 537-559.
- De Vos, A., De Stobbeleir, K., & Meganck, A. (2009). The relationship between career-related antecedents and graduates' anticipatory psychological contracts. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 24(3), 289-298.
- De Vos, A., & Freese, C. (2011). Sensemaking during organizational entry: Changes in newcomer information seeking and the relationship with psychological contract fulfilment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(2), 288-314.
- Delucchi, M., & Korgen, K. (2002). 'We're the customers - we pay the tuition': Student Consumerism among Undergraduate Sociology Majors. *Teaching Sociology*, 30(1), 100-107.
- Denzin, N. (1994). The art and politics of Interpretation. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 500-515). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publication.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2008). *The landscape of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publication.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*: Sage.
- DeVault, M. L. (1996). Talking back to sociology: Distinctive contributions of feminist methodology. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 29-50.
- Dowlin-Hetherington, L. (2014). The Changing demands of academic life in Ireland. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 28(2), 141-151.
- Duderstadt, J. J. (1999). *The twenty-first century university: A tale of two futures*.
- Dunkin, R. (2000). Contribution to online discussion forum. Retrieved from www.qut.edu.au/chan/odvc/imhe/resp5.htm
- Dunne, J. (1993). *Back to the Rough Ground: 'Phronesis' and 'Techne' in Modern Philosophy and in Aristotle*. London: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., & Jackson, P. (2012). *Management research*. (4th ed.) London: Sage Publications.
- Entwistle, N. (1988). Motivational factors in students' approaches to learning *Learning strategies and learning styles* (pp. 21-51). Springer.
- Evans, J. (2007). Teaching and learning for customer satisfaction in higher education. *International Journal of Learning*, 14(1), 191-208.

- Eysenck, H. J. (2013). *Case Studies in Behaviour Therapy (Psychology Revivals)*: Routledge.
- Fan, W., & Yan, Z. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26(2), 132-139. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2009.10.015>
- Farrell, D. (1983). Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect as responses to job dissatisfaction: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(4), 596-607.
- Ferris, W. P. (2002). Students as junior partners, professors as senior partners, the B-school as the firm: A new model for collegiate business education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 1(2), 185-193.
- Finney, T. G., & Finney, R. Z. (2010). Are students their universities' customers? An exploratory study. *Education and Training*, 52(4), 276-291.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), 219-245.
- Franz, R. S. (1998). Whatever you do, don't Treat your Students Like Customers! *Journal of Management Education*, 22(1), 63-69.
- Freese, C., & Schalk, R. (2008). How to measure the psychological contract? A critical criteria-based review of measures. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 38(2), 269-286.
- Garland, R. (1991). The mid-point on a rating scale: Is it desirable? *Marketing bulletin*, 2(1), 66-70.
- Geertz, C. (1995). *After the fact: Two countries*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Gellatly, I. R. (1996). Conscientiousness and task performance: Test of cognitive process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(5), 474.
- Gill, J. (2015, June 18). David Willets interview: 'What I did was in the interests of young people'. *Times Higher Education*. Retrieved from <https://www.timeshighereducation.com/david-willetts-what-i-did-was-in-the-interests-of-young-people>
- Gillespie, T. L., & Parry, R. O. (2009). Students as Employees Applying Performance Management Principles in the Management Classroom. *Journal of Management Education*, 33(5), 553-576.
- Gioia, D. A., & Poole, P. P. (1984). Scripts in organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(3), 449-459.
- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*: Longman White Plains, NY.

- Goodall, H. L. (2000). *Writing the new ethnography*. Lanham, MD: AltaMira.
- Gould, S. (1979). An equity-exchange model of organizational involvement. *Academy of Management Review*, 4(1), 53-62.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American sociological review*, 161-178.
- Goyder, J. (1987). *The Silent Majority: -on-respondents on sample surveys*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational evaluation and policy analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.
- Grenfell, M., & James, D. (1998). *Bourdieu and education: Acts of practical theory*. Psychology Press.
- Griffith, A. I. (1998). Insider/Outsider: epistemological privilege and mothering work. *Human Studies*, 21, 361-376.
- Group. (2007). *Enhancing the student experience*. London, England.
- Gruber, T., Reppel, A., & Voss, R. (2010). Understanding the characteristics of effective professors: the student's perspective. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 20(2), 175-190.
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The paradigm dialogue*: Sage Publications.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Guest, D. E. (1998). Is the psychological contract worth taking seriously? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19(S1), 649-664.
- Guest, D. E. (2004a). Flexible employment contracts, the psychological contract and employee outcomes: an analysis and review of the evidence. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 5(1), 1-19.
- Guest, D. E. (2004b). The psychology of the employment relationship: An analysis based on the psychological contract. *Applied psychology*, 53(4), 541-555.
- Haggis, T. (2006). Pedagogies for diversity: retaining critical challenge amidst fears of 'dumbing down'. *Studies in Higher Education*, 31(5), 521-535. doi: 10.1080/03075070600922709
- Hall, K. L., Watkins, J. E., Coffey, J. E., Cooke, T. J., & Redish, E. F. (2011). Examining the impact of student expectations on undergraduate biology education reform. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1105.6349*.

- Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (1983). *Ethnography: Principles and Practices*. London: Tavistock.
- Harding, J., & Thompson, J. (2011). *Dispositions to Stay – and to Succeed*. Northumbria University.
- Hartley, J. (2006). Case Study Research. In C. Cassell & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organisational Research* (pp. 323-333). London: Sage.
- Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education settings*. Albany: Suny Press.
- Hayano, D. (1979). Auto-ethnography: Paradigms, problems and prospects. *Human Organization*, 38, 99-104.
- Haynes, K. (2012). Reflexivity in Qualitative Research. In G. Symon & C. Cassell (Eds.), *Qualitative Organizational Research* (pp. 72 - 89). London: Sage.
- Headland, T. N., Pike, K. L., & Harris, M. E. (Eds.). (1990). *Emics and etics: The insider/outsider debate. Frontiers of anthropology, Vol. 7*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Helms, S., & Key, C. H. (1994). Are students more than customers in the classroom. *Quality progress*, 27(9), 97-99.
- Henderson, B. (1970). The product portfolio. *BCG Perspectives*, 66.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Langer, M. F., & Hansen, U. (2001). Modelling and Managing Student Loyalty An Approach Based on the Concept of Relationship Quality. *Journal of service research*, 3(4), 331-344.
- Herriot, P., Manning, W., & Kidd, J. M. (1997). The content of the psychological contract. *British Journal of management*, 8(2), 151-162.
- Hibberts, M. F., & Johnson, R. B. (2012). Mixed Methods Research. *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management* (3 ed.). Sage Publications Ltd.
- Higgins, E. T. (1992). Social Cognition as a social science: How social action creates meaning. In D. Ruble, P. Costanzo, & M. Oliveri (Eds.), *The social psychology of mental health*. New York: Guilford.
- Hill, F. M. (1995). Managing service quality in higher education: the role of the student as primary consumer. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 3(3), 10-21.
- Hill, Y., Lomas, L., & MacGregor, J. (2003). Students' perceptions of quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 11(1), 15-20. doi: 10.1108/09684880310462047
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states*: Harvard university press.

- Hoffman, K. D., & Kretovics, M. A. (2004). Students as partial Employees: A metaphor for the student-Institution interaction. *Innovative Higher Education*, 29(2), 103-120.
- Holland, T. P. (1989). Values, faith and professional practice. *Social Thought*, 15(1), 28-40.
- Holstein, J., & Gubrium, J. F. (2003). *Inside interviewing: New lenses, new concerns*. Sage.
- Houston, D., Meyer, L. H., & Paewai, S. (2006). Academic staff workloads and job satisfaction: Expectations and values in academe. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(1), 17-30.
- Hyde, A., Clarke, M., & Drennan, J. (2013). The changing role of academics and the rise of managerialism *The academic profession in Europe: New tasks and new challenges* (pp. 39-52). Springer.
- Investorwords. (2012). Retrieved 03/01/2013, from <http://www.investorwords.com/5877/customer.html>
- James, R. (2002). *Responding to student expectations*. France: OECD Publishing.
- Jansen, E. P., & van der Meer, J. (2012). Ready for university? A cross-national study of students' perceived preparedness for university. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 39(1), 1-16.
- Jeffery, L. (2012). *A review of the literature examining pedagogical differences between A level and university*. Cambridge.
- Jenkins, A. (2004). *A guide to the research evidence on teaching-research relations*. Higher Education Academy York.
- Jephcote, M., Salisbury, J., & Rees, G. (2008). Being a teacher in further education in changing times. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 13(2), 163-172.
- Johns, G. (1993). Constraints on the adoption of psychology-based personnel practices: lessons from organizational innovation. *Personnel Psychology*, 46(3), 569-592.
- Johns, G. (2001). In Praise of Context. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 22, 31-42.
- Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(2), 386-408. doi: 10.5465/AMR.2006.20208687
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(2), 112-133.
- Jones, G. (2010). Managing student expectations. *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education*, 14(2), 44-48. doi: 10.1080/13603101003776135

- Joseph, M., & Joseph, B. (1998). Identifying needs of potential students in tertiary education for strategy development. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 6(2), 90-96.
- JWT. (2012). Gen Z: Digital in their DNA. Retrieved 21st January 2015, from http://www.jwtintelligence.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/04/F_INTERNAL_Gen_Z_0418122.pdf
- Kandiko, C. B., & Mawer, M. (2013). *Student expectations and perceptions of Higher education*. London: King's Learning Institute.
- Kanuha, V. K. (2000). "Being" native versus "going native": Conducting social work research as an insider. *Social Work*, 45(5), 439-447.
- Kember, D. (2001). Beliefs about knowledge and the process of teaching and learning as a factor in adjusting to study in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 26(2), 205-221.
- Kember, D., Lee, K., & Li, N. (2001). Cultivating a sense of belonging in part-time students. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 20(4), 326-341.
- Keup, J. R. (2008). New challenges in working with traditional-aged college students. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2008(144), 27-37.
- Kift, S. M. (2008). *The next, great first year challenge: Sustaining, coordinating and embedding coherent institution-wide approaches to enact the FYE as "everybody's business"*. Paper presented at the Keynote at the Pacific rim first year in higher education conference, Hobart, Tasmania.
- King, N. (1998). Template analysis. In G. S. C. Cassell (Ed.), *Qualitative methods and analysis in organizational research: A practical guide* (pp. 118-134). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.
- King, N., & Brooks, J. M. (2016). *Template Analysis for Business and Management Students*. London: Sage.
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Knox, H. (2005). Making the transition from further to higher education: the impact of a preparatory module on retention, progression and performance. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 29(2), 103-110. doi: 10.1080/03098770500103135
- Kolb, D., Rubin, I. M., & McIntyre, J. (1984). *Organisation Psychology: An Experiential Approach to Organizational Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Korczynski, M. (2004). Back-office service work: bureaucracy challenged? *Work, Employment & Society*, 18(1), 97-114.
- Koskina, A. (2011). What does the student psychological contract mean? Evidence from a UK business school. *Studies in Higher Education*, 1-17. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2011.618945

- Kotter, J. P. (1973). The Psychological Contract: Managing the Joining-Up Process. *California management review*, 15(3).
- Kuh, G. D., Cruce, T. M., Shoup, R., Kinzie, J., & Gonyea, R. M. (2008). Unmasking the effects of student engagement on first-year college grades and persistence. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 79(5), 540-563.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing* (2 ed.). London: Sage.
- Kypri, K., Samaranayaka, A., Connor, J., Langley, J. D., & MacLennan, B. (2011). Non-response bias in a web-based health behaviour survey of New Zealand tertiary students. *Preventive medicine*, 53(4), 274-277.
- Laing, C., & Robinson, A. (2003). The Withdrawal of Non-traditional Students: developing an explanatory model. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 27(2), 175-185.
- Land, R., Cousin, G., Meyer, J. H. F., & Davies, P. (2006). Implications of threshold concepts for course design and evaluation. In J. H. F. Meyer & R. Land (Eds.), *Overcoming Barriers to Student Understanding: Threshold Concepts and Troublesome Knowledge*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Land, R., & Rattray, J. (2014). *A Closer Look at Liminality: incorrigibles and threshold capital*. Paper presented at the Threshold Concepts: From Personal Practice to Communities of Practice, Proceedings of the National Academy's Sixth Annual Conference and the Fourth Biennial Threshold Concepts Conference [e-publication], Ireland. http://www.nairtl.ie/documents/EPub_2012Proceedings.pdf#page=11
- Lane, J. (2010) *Do we deliver on Law student expectations? If not, how can we work to achieve this?* Paper presented at the 45th Annual Conference of the Association of Law Teachers, Legal Education: Making a difference, Clare College, Cambridge UK.
- Langdrige, D. (2007). *Phenomenological Psychology: Theory, Research and Method*. Essex, England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Lea, S. J., Stephenson, D., & Troy, J. (2003). Higher education students' attitudes to student-centred learning: beyond 'educational bulimia'? *Studies in Higher Education*, 28(3), 321-334.
- Leathwood, C., & O'Connell, P. (2003). 'It's a struggle': the construction of the 'new student' in higher education. *Journal of Education Policy*, 18(6), 597-615. doi: 10.1080/0268093032000145863
- LeCompte, M. D., & Preissle, J. (1993). *Analyzing and interpreting Ethnographic Data* (2 ed.). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Lee, B., Collier, P. M., & Cullen, J. (2007). Reflections on the use of case studies in the accounting, management and organizational disciplines. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, 2(3), 169-178.

- Leese, M. (2010). Bridging the gap: Supporting student transitions into higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 34(2), 239-251.
- Lester, S. W., Turnley, W. H., Bloodgood, J. M., & Bolino, M. C. (2002). Not seeing eye to eye: Differences in supervisor and subordinate perceptions of and attributions for psychological contract breach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(1), 39-56.
- Levine, A. (1993). *Editorial: Student Expectations of College*.
- Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. *Administrative science quarterly*, 9(4).
- Levinson, H., Price, C. R., Munden, K. J., Mandl, H. J., & Solley, C. M. (1962). *Men, management, and mental health*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.
- Little, B., Locke, W., Scesa, A., & Williams, R. (2009). *Report to HEFCE on student engagement*.
- Lizzio, A., Wilson, K., & Simons, R. (2002). University students' perceptions of the learning environment and academic outcomes: implications for theory and practice. *Studies in Higher Education*, 27(1), 27-52.
- Lomas, L. (2007). Are students customers? Perceptions of academic staff. *Quality in Higher Education*, 13(1), 31-44.
- Long, P., & Tricker, T. (2004). *Do first year undergraduates find what they expect?* Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Manchester.
- Longden, B. (2006). An institutional response to changing student expectations and their impact on retention rates. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(2), 173-187.
- Louis, M. R. (1980). Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative science quarterly*, 226-251.
- Lowe, H., & Cook, A. (2003). Mind the Gap: Are students prepared for higher education? *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 27(1), 53-76. doi: 10.1080/03098770305629
- Madill, A., Jordan, A., & Shirley, C. (2000). Objectivity and reliability in qualitative analysis: Realist, contextualist and radical constructionist epistemologies. *British journal of psychology*, 91(1), 1-20.
- Mann, S. J. (2001). Alternative perspectives on the student experience: alienation and engagement. *Studies in Higher Education*, 26(1), 7-19.

- Marcus, J. (2008, 20 May 2015). Living the dream. *Times Higher Education*, p. 862.
Retrieved from
<http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/story.asp?storycode=403454>
- Marks, A. (2001). Developing a multiple foci conceptualization of the psychological contract. *Employee relations*, 23(5), 454-469.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing Qualitative Research* (4 ed.). London: Sage.
- Maykut, P., & Morehouse, R. (1994). *Beginning Qualitative Researchers: A Philosophical and practical guide*. Washington, DC: Falmer.
- McCulloch, A. (2009). The student as co-producer: Learning from public administration about the student–university relationship. *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(2), 171-183.
- McInnis, C., James, R., & Hartley, R. (2000). Trends in the first year experience in Australian universities *Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs*. Canberra.
- McInnis, K. J. (2012). Psychological contracts in the workplace: A mixed methods design project. *University of Western Ontario - Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository, Paper 383*.
- McQueen, H., & Webber, J. (2009). What is very important to learning? A student perspective on a model of teaching and learning. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 33(3), 241-253. doi: 10.1080/03098770903026164
- Meckler, M., Drake, B. H., & Levinson, H. (2003). Putting psychology back into psychological contracts. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 12(3), 217-228.
- Mercer, J. (2007). The challenges of insider research in educational institutions: wielding a double-edged sword and resolving delicate dilemmas. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(1), 1-17. doi: 10.1080/03054980601094651
- Merleau-Ponty, M. (1945). *Phenomenology of Perception* (C. Smith, Trans.). London: Routledge.
- Merton, R. (1972). Insiders and Outsiders; a chapter in the sociology of knowledge. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(July), 9-47.
- Meyer, J., & Land, R. (2003). *Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge: linkages to ways of thinking and practising within the disciplines*: University of Edinburgh Edinburgh.
- Meyer, J., & Land, R. (Eds.). (2006). *Overcoming barriers to student understanding: Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge*: Routledge.

- Migiro, S., & Magangi, B. (2011). Mixed methods: A review of literature and the future of the new research paradigm. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(10), 3757-3764.
- Miles, M., & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis - An expanded Sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Sage.
- Miles, M. B. (1979). Qualitative data as an attractive nuisance: the problem of analysis. *Administrative science quarterly*, 590-601.
- Millward, L. J., & Brewerton, P. M. (2000). Psychological contracts: Employee relations for the twenty-first century? *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, 15, 1-62.
- Millward, L. J., & Hopkins, L. J. (1998). Psychological contracts, organizational and job commitment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(16), 1530-1556.
- Mitchell, R. K., Agle, B. R., & Wood, D. J. (1997). Towards a theory of stakeholder identification and salience: Defining the principle of who and what really counts. . *Academy of Management Review*, 22(4), 853-886. doi: 10.5465/amr.1997.9711022105
- Moore, J. (2012). A personal insight into researcher positionality. *Nurse Researcher*, 19(4), 11-14.
- Moore, J., McNeill, J., & Halliday, S. (2011). Worth the price? Some findings from young people on attitudes to increases in university tuition fees. *Widening Participation and Lifelong Learning*, 13(1), 57-70.
- Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(1), 226-256.
- Morse, J. (1994). Designing funded qualitative research. In. NK Denzin & YS Lincoln,(Eds.). *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 220-235). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mortimore, P. (1999). *Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on Learning*. London: Paul Chapman.
- Murphy, M. (2011). Troubled by the past: history, identity and the university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 33(5), 509-517.
- Nadin, S. J., & Williams, C. C. (2011). Psychological contract violation beyond an employees' perspective: The perspective of employers. *Employee relations*, 34(2), 110-125.
- Naidoo, R., & Jamieson, I. (2005). Empowering participants or corroding learning? Towards a research agenda on the impact of student consumerism in higher education. *Journal of Education Policy*, 20(3), 267-281.

- Neilsen, H. D., Moos, R. H., & Lee, E. A. (1978). Response bias in follow-up studies of college students. *Research in Higher Education*(9), 97-113
- Nicholson, L., Putwain, D., Connors, L., & Hornby-Atkinson, P. (2011). The key to successful achievement as an undergraduate student: confidence and realistic expectations? *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(2), 285-298. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2011.585710
- Nicol, D. (2010). From monologue to dialogue: improving written feedback processes in mass higher education. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(5), 501-517.
- Nowell, C., Gale, L. R., & Kerkvliet, J. (2014). Non-response bias in student evaluations of teaching. *International Review of Economics Education*, 17, 30-38.
- Nulty, D. D. (2008). The adequacy of response rates to online and paper surveys: what can be done? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(3), 301-314. doi: 10.1080/02602930701293231
- Obermiller, C., & Atwood, A. (2011). In defence of the student as customer metaphor. *International Journal of Management Education*, 9(3), 13-16.
- O'Donohue, W., Donohue, R., & Grimmer, M. (2007). Research into the psychological contract: Two Australian perspectives. *Human Resource Development International*, 10(3), 301-318.
- O'Hear, A. (1988). Academic freedom and the university. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 22(1), 13-21.
- Oldfield, B. M., & Baron, S. (2000). Student perceptions of service quality in a UK university business and management faculty. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 8(2), 85-95.
- Olssen, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy*, 20(3), 313-345.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Collins, K. M. (2007). A Typology of Mixed Methods Sampling Designs in Social Science Research. *Qualitative Report*, 12(2), 281-316.
- O'Toole, P., & Prince, N. (2014). The psychological contract of science students: social exchange with universities and university staff from the students' perspective. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 1-13. doi: 10.1080/07294360.2014.934326
- Owen, C., & Gordon, G. (2014). Moving Up: National Qualifications Frameworks, School - University Linkages and the Challenge of Transition from Secondary to Tertiary Sector. In H. Eggins (Ed.), *Drivers and Barriers to Achieving Quality in Higher Education* (pp. 109-126). Rotterdam: SensePublishers.

- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Pieters, R., Bottschen, G., & Thelen, E. (1998). Customer desire expectations about service employees: an analysis of hierarchical relations. *Psychology & Marketing*, 15(8), 755-773.
- Pietersen, C. (2014). Negotiating a Shared Psychological Contract with Students. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(7), 25.
- Platt, J. (1981). On interviewing one's peers. *British Journal of Sociology*, 75-91.
- Powney, J., & Watts, M. (1987). *Interviewing in educational research*: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Pozo-Muñoz, C., Rebollosa-Pacheco, E., & Fernández-Ramírez, B. (2000). The 'Ideal Teacher'. Implications for student evaluation of teacher effectiveness. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 25(3), 253-263. doi: 10.1080/02602930050135121
- Prakash, V. (1984). Validity and reliability of the confirmation of expectations paradigm as a determinant of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 12(4), 63-76.
- Pratchett, T. (1994). *Interesting Times*: Gollancz.
- Pratchett, T. (2009). *Unseen Academicals*: HarperCollins.
- Preckel, F., Holling, H., & Vock, M. (2006). Academic underachievement: Relationship with cognitive motivation, achievement motivation, and conscientiousness. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43(3), 401-411.
- Ragin, C. C., & Becker, H. S. (1992). *What is a case?: exploring the foundations of social inquiry*. Cambridge university press.
- Raja, U., Johns, G., & Ntalianis, F. (2004). The impact of personality on psychological contracts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(3), 350-367. doi: 10.2307/20159586
- Ramsden, P. (2003). *Learning to teach in higher education*. Routledge.
- Ramsden, P. (2008). The future of higher education teaching and the student experience. URL: <http://www.bis.gov.uk/policies/teaching-student-experience>.
- Ramsden, P. (2013). *The future of Higher Education teaching and the student experience*. Retrieved from http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/resources/detail/consultations/paulramsden_teaching_and_student_experience
- Rayton, B. A., & Yalabik, Z. Y. (2014). Work engagement, psychological contract breach and job satisfaction. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(17), 2382-2400.

- Reay, D., Crozier, G., & Clayton, J. (2009). 'Fitting in' or 'standing out': working-class students in UK higher education. *British Educational Research Journal*, 36(1), 107-124. doi: 10.1080/01411920902878925
- Reay, D., David, M., & Ball, S. (2001). Making a difference?: Institutional habituses and higher education choice. *Sociological Research Online*, 5(4).
- Rees, A., & Wilkinson, M. (2008). Scientific Communication Skills: The Transition from Further Education to Higher Education in the UK. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*, 5(9), 33-40.
- Regan, J. (2012). The Role Obligations of Students and Lecturers in Higher Education. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 46(1), 14-24.
- Reinharz, S. (1997). Who am I? The need for a variety of selves in fieldwork In R. Hertz (Ed.) *Reflexivity and voice* p. 3-20. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Remedios, R., & Lieberman, D. A. (2008). I liked your course because you taught me well: the influence of grades, workload, expectations and goals on students' evaluations of teaching. *British Educational Research Journal*, 34(1), 91-115. doi: 10.1080/01411920701492043
- Ridley, D. (2004). Puzzling Experiences in higher education: critical moments for conversation. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29(1), 91-107. doi: 10.1080/1234567032000164895
- Rinehart, G. (1993). *Quality Education: Applying the philosophy of Dr. W. Edwards Deming to transform the educational system*. Milwaukee, WI: ASQC Quality Press.
- Robbins, S. P., Judge, T. A., Odendall, A., & Roodt, G. (2009). *Organisational Behaviour: Global and Southern African Perspective*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.
- Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative science quarterly*, 574-599.
- Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(1), 137-152.
- Robinson, S. L., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: Not the exception but the norm. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(3), 245-259.
- Robotham, D. (2012). Students' perspectives on term-time employment: an exploratory qualitative study. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 37(3), 431-442. doi: 10.1080/0309877X.2012.666892
- Roehling, M. V. (1997). The origins and early development of the psychological contract construct. *Journal of Management History (Archive)*, 3(2), 204-217.

- Roehling, M. V. (2008). An empirical assessment of alternative conceptualizations of the psychological contract construct: Meaningful differences or “much to do about nothing”? *Employee responsibilities and rights journal*, 20(4), 261-290.
- Rolfe, H. (2002). Students' demands and expectations in an age of reduced financial support: the perspectives of lecturers in four English universities. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 24(2), 171-182.
- Rossman, G. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1985). Numbers and Words Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in a Single Large-Scale Evaluation Study. *Evaluation review*, 9(5), 627-643.
- Rostan, M. (2010). Challenges to academic freedom: Some empirical evidence. *European Review*, 18(S1), S71-S88.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee responsibilities and rights journal*, 2(2), 121-139.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1990). New hire perceptions of their own and their employer's obligations: A study of psychological contracts. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 11(5), 389-400. doi: 10.1002/job.4030110506
- Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Rousseau, D. M. (2001). Schema, promise and mutuality: The building blocks of the psychological contract. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74, 511-541.
- Rousseau, D. M. (2010). The individual-organization relationship: The Psychological Contract. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Vol 3: Maintaining, expanding and contracting the organization* (pp. 191-214). Washington: American Psychological Association.
- Rousseau, D. M., & McLean-Parks, J. (1993). The Contracts of Individuals and Organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 15, 1-43
- Rousseau, D. M., & Tijoriwala, S. A. (1998). Assessing psychological contracts: Issues, alternatives and measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19(S1), 679-695.
- Sabri, D. (2011). What's wrong with 'the student experience'? *Discourse: Studies in the cultural politics of education*, 32(5), 657-667.
- Saenz, T., Marcoulides, G. A., Junn, E., & Young, R. (1999). The relationship between college experience and academic performance among minority students. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 13(4), 199-207.
- Sánchez, M. M., Pecino, R. M., Rodríguez, Y. T., & Melero, P. T. (2011). Student perspectives on the university professor role. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 39(4), 491-496.

- Sánchez-Fernández, J., Muñoz-Leiva, F., & Montoro-Ríos, F. J. (2012). Improving retention rate and response quality in Web-based surveys. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 28(2), 507-514.
- Sandberg, J. (2005). How Do We Justify Knowledge Produced Within Interpretive Approaches? *Organizational Research Methods*, 8(1), 41-68.
- Sander, P., Stevenson, K., King, M., & Coates, D. (2000). University Students' Expectations of Teaching. *Studies of Higher Education*, 25(3), 309-323. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03075070050193433>
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students* (6 ed.). England: Pearson.
- Schein, E. H. (1965). *Organizational Psychology*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Schein, E. H. (1980). *Organizational Psychology* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice - Hall Inc.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2000). Three epistemological stances for qualitative enquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed., pp. 189-213). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Seale, C. (1999). *The Quality of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Seeck, H., & Parzefall, M.-R. (2008). Employee agency: challenges and opportunities for psychological contract theory. *Personnel Review*, 37(5), 473-489.
- Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing in Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). Columbia University: OH Teachers College Press.
- Shank, M. D., Walker, M., & Hayes, T. J. (1996). Cross-cultural differences in student expectations. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 7(1), 17-32.
- Sharp, J. G., Hemmings, B., Kay, R., & Callinan, C. (2014). When worlds collide: identity, culture and the lived experiences of research when 'teaching-led'. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 1-33. doi: 10.1080/0309877x.2013.858679
- Shepperd, J. W. (1997). Relevance and Responsibility: A Postmodern Response. Response to "A Postmodern Explanation of Student Consumerism in Higher Education". *Teaching Sociology*, 25(4), 333-335.
- Shore, L. M., & Barksdale, K. (1998). Examining degree of balance and level of obligation in the employment relationship: A social exchange approach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (19), 731-744.
- Shore, L. M., & Tetrick, L. E. (1994). The psychological contract as an explanatory framework in the employment relationship. *Trends in organizational behavior*, 1(91), 91-109.

- Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook*. London: Sage
- Silverman, D. (2013). *A very short, fairly interesting and reasonably cheap book about qualitative research*. (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Sirvanci, M. (1996). Are students the true customers of higher education? *Quality progress*, 29(10), 99.
- Smith, J. S., & Wertlieb, E. C. (2005). Do First - Year College Students' Expectations Align with their First - Year Experiences. *NASPA Journal*, 42(2), 153-174.
- Smith, R. A., & Houston, M. J. (1986). Measuring script development: An evaluation of alternative approaches. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 13(1), 504-508.
- Stake, R. E. (2008). Qualitative Case Studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Enquiry* (pp. 119-150). London: Sage.
- Sturman, A. (1999). Case Study Methods. In J. P. Keeves & G. Lakomski (Eds.), *Issues in Educational Research* (pp. 103-112). Oxford: Elsevier Science.
- Svensson, G., & Wood, G. (2007). Are university students really customers? When illusion may lead to delusion for all! *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(1), 17-28.
- Symon, G., & Cassell, C. (2012). Assessing Qualitative Research. In G. Symon & C. Cassell (Eds.), *Qualitative Organizational Research* (pp. 204-223). London: Sage.
- Tarrant, J. (2006). Teaching time-savvy law students. *James Cook UL Rev.*, 13, 64.
- Taylor, J. A., & Bedford, T. (2004). Staff perceptions of factors related to non-completion in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29(3), 375-394.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Thomas, H. D., & Anderson, N. (1998). Changes in newcomers' psychological contracts during organizational socialization: a study of recruits entering the British Army. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19(S1), 745-767.
- Thomas, L. (2002). Student retention in higher education: the role of institutional habitus. *Journal of Education Policy*, 17(4), 423-442. doi: 10.1080/02680930210140257
- Thompson, J. A., & Bunderson, J. S. (2003). Violations of principle: Ideological currency in the psychological contract. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(4), 571-586.
- Thomson, A. (2008). Why we can't turn our backs on the league-table generation. *Times Higher Education*, 10, 24-31.

- Tietze, S. (2012). Researching your own organisation. In G. Symon & C. Cassell (Eds.), *Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges* (pp. 53-71). London: Sage.
- Tight, M. (2010). The Golden Age of Academe: Myth or Memory? *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 58(1), 105-116. doi: 10.1080/00071000903516502
- Tinto, V. (1993). *Leaving College: Rethinking the Causes and Cures of*. Book News Inc. Portland, Oregon.
- Tinto, V. (1999). Taking retention seriously: Rethinking the first year of college. *NACADA journal*, 19(2), 5-9.
- Tinto, V. (2006). Research and practice of student retention: what next? *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory and Practice*, 8(1), 1-19.
- Tomprou, M., & Nikolaou, I. (2011). A model of psychological contract creation upon organizational entry. *Career development international*, 16(4), 342-363.
- Torenbeek, M., Jansen, E. P. W. A., & Hofman, W. H. A. (2011). How is the approach to teaching at secondary school related to first-year achievement? *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: An International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice*, 22(4), 351-370.
- Tracy, S. J. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight “big-tent” criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(10), 837-851.
- Tricker, T. (2005). Student expectations—how do we measure up. In F. McMahon & T. Claes (Eds.), *Probing the boundaries of higher education* (pp. 111-114). Inter-disciplinary Press.
- Tukey, J. W. (1977). *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Reading MA: Addison - Wesley.
- Turnley, W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (1998). Psychological contract violations during corporate restructuring. *Human Resource Management*, 37(1), 71-83. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-050X(199821)37:1<71::AID-HRM7>3.0.CO;2-S
- Ulriksen, L. (2009). The implied student. *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(5), 517-532. doi: 10.1080/03075070802597135
- VanMaanen, J. (1988). *Tales of the Field. On writing ethnography*. University of Chicago.
- Voss, R., & Gruber, T. (2006). The desired teaching qualities of lecturers in higher education: a means end analysis. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 14(3), 217-242.
- Voss, R., Gruber, T., & Szmigin, I. (2007). Service quality in higher education: The role of student expectations. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(9), 949-959. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2007.01.020>

- Wade-Benzoni, K. A., Rousseau, D. M., & Li, M. (2006). Managing relationships across generations of academics: Psychological contracts in faculty-doctoral student collaborations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 17(1), 4-33.
- Walker, M., Shank, M., & Hayes, T. (1994). *Diversity in the classroom: gender differences in student expectations*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Southern Marketing Association.
- Wanous, J. P. (1977). Organizational Entry: Newcomers Moving from Outside to Inside. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84, 601-618.
- Waring, T., & Wainwright, D. (2008). *Innovative developments in the use of template analysis: Two comparative case studies from the field*. Paper presented at the 7th European Conference on Research Methodology for Business and Management Studies: Ecrm 2008.
- Watkins, D., & Hattie, J. (1985). A longitudinal study of the approaches to learning of Australian tertiary students. *Human Learning*(4), 127-141.
- Wieviorka, M. (1992). Case studies: History or sociology. *What is a Case*, 159-172.
- Wild, T. C., Cunningham, J., & Adlaf, E. (2001). Non response in a follow up to a representative telephone survey of adult drinkers (Statistical Data Included). *J. Stud. Alcohol*, 62, 257.
- Wilkinson, S. (1988). *The role of reflexivity in feminist psychology*. Paper presented at the Women's Studies International Forum.
- Willig, C. (2013). *Introducing Qualitative Research in Psychology* (3rd ed.). Berkshire, England: McGraw - Hill Education.
- Winter, G. (2000). A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research. *The qualitative report*, 4(3), 4.
- Woodall, T., Hiller, A., & Resnick, S. (2012). Making sense of higher education: students as consumers and the value of the university experience. *Studies in Higher Education*, 1-20. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2011.648373
- Wrzesniewski, A., McCauley, C., Rozin, P., & Schwartz, B. (1997). Jobs, careers, and callings: People's relations to their work. *Journal of research in personality*, 31(1), 21-33.
- Yardley, L. (2000). Dilemmas in qualitative health research. *Psychology and health*, 15(2), 215-228.
- Yoon, J. S. (2002). Teacher characteristics as predictors of teacher-student relationships: Stress, negative affect, and self-efficacy. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 30(5), 485-493.

- Zeithaml, V. A., & Bitner, M. J. (2000). *Services Marketing: Integrating Customer Focus Across the Firm* (2nd ed.). Boston: McGraw - Hill Higher Education.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L. L. (1990). *Delivering Quality Service: Balancing Customer Perceptions and Expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Zepke, N., & Leach, L. (2005). Integration and adaptation Approaches to the student retention and achievement puzzle. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 6(1), 46-59.
- Zepke, N., & Leach, L. (2007). Improving student outcomes in higher education: New Zealand teachers' views on teaching students from diverse backgrounds. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 12(5-6), 655-668.
- Zhang, L., Han, Z., & Gao, Q. (2009). Empirical study on the student satisfaction index in higher education. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 3(9), p46.
- Zhao, H. A. O., Wayne, S. J., Glibkowski, B. C., & Bravo, J. (2007). The impact of psychological contract breach on work-related outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(3), 647-680. doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00087.x

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Organisational Context

Appendix 2 - Phenomenology – The philosophical stance behind the methodology

Appendix 3 – Student Questionnaire

Appendix 4 – Academic Staff Questionnaire

Appendix 5 – Student Interview Schedules

Appendix 6 – Academic Staff Interview Schedules

Appendix 7 – Organisational Consent Form

Appendix 8 – Informed Consent Form – Student Participant

Appendix 9 – Informed Consent Form – Academic Staff Participant

Appendix 10 – Scatter Diagrams:

Expectations/Importance – Students of University Teachers (Academics)
Expectations/Importance – University teachers' perception of students' expectations of teachers.

Appendix 11 – Scatter Diagrams:

Expectations/Importance – Students of Students' Role
Expectations/Importance – University teachers' perception of students' expectations of student.

Appendix 1

Organisational Context

The research takes place in a post-1992¹⁰ institution located in the North East of England which has been recognised by *Times Higher Education* (2013) as one of the top-rated universities for the provision of business and management education in the UK. It is AACSB¹¹ accredited in Business and Accounting, making it part of an elite group of less than 1% of business schools worldwide, and also has EPAS¹² accreditation. Since 2007 the faculty has been located in an award winning building which provides excellent learning facilities.

The university has set out a radical vision of its future where “it will be recognised internationally for the quality of our research, for our postgraduate education and graduates, and as providers of an outstanding student experience.” This vision is promoted to all prospective students and their sponsors at open day events with the purpose of attracting high-achieving students.

In 2013/14 the Business School enrolled 830 home students onto its UG programmes of which 37% (307) were from the North East. Of these North East students, 55% attended state academies, comprehensives and/or high schools, 5% private independent schools, 11% Sixth Form Colleges, 24% Tertiary and Technical Colleges and 5% were defined as miscellaneous. The sample frame comprises students from the North East of England. There are two pragmatic reasons for this selection – firstly they constitute the largest sub-group of those enrolled and secondly the ease of access for interviewing purposes. The nature of this study is qualitative and consequently the ‘sample’ does not have to be statistically representative of the population of all first year enrollees, since no claims will be made with respect to the generalisability of the findings.

Entry criteria are points-based and a student requires a minimum of 300 points to access a programme – these can be gained from a maximum of four appropriate L3 qualifications. All

¹⁰ Former polytechnics, central institutions or colleges of HE that were given university status in 1992, through the Further and Higher Education Act 1992.

¹¹ Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business

¹² European Programme Accreditation System: EPAS is part of the European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD) accreditation programme

students on Business and Finance programmes complete six modules within their first year, of which five are common to UG programme degrees and the sixth relates specifically to their discipline area. Marks awarded at the end of the first year do not contribute towards their final degree classification. The Business School has a good record of preparing students for the world of business – it has been placed 11th for Graduate Level Employability in the *Sunday Times Good University Guide (2013)* and prides itself on research informed learning.

In short, this is a successful and vibrant institution attracting high-achieving international, national and regional students onto its programmes.

Appendix 2

Phenomenology – The philosophical stance behind the methodology (The importance of conversation as a mode of philosophical inquiry)

Phenomenology as a philosophical tradition has from the start highlighted the need to explore directly the world of lived experiences (King & Horrocks, 2010). Husserl (1859-1938) is regarded by many to be the founder of the phenomenological philosophy movement which was then developed further by Martin Heidegger (1889-1976) and his followers. Husserl was concerned with the pre-eminence of positivist traditions to construct explanations and argued that science should try and set aside preconceptions and describe how phenomena appeared to human consciousness (King & Horrocks, 2010). It was through this careful description, or as Husserl famously stated getting back “to the things themselves” that firm foundations could be built for research. His phenomenological method stated that the researcher needs to set aside, ‘bracket’ their assumption about the phenomenon under investigation and see it anew. This process, known as *époché* in phenomenology, would, Husserl claims, allow the ‘essence’ of any particular phenomenon to be exposed and described, without the cultural and personal preconceptions which normally distort our understandings. This emphasis characterises a tradition that is known as transcendental phenomenology – the belief that it is possible to look outside of lived experiences to see things as they really are. Thus, within this tradition, it is important that the researcher consciously sets aside any pre-suppositions concerning the phenomena which are being examined; in this case expectations of the pedagogical relationship.

Many would argue however that the process of such phenomenological reduction is imperfect and that we can never entirely step outside of the world in which we find ourselves to see things objectively (Martin Heidegger (1889-1976), Jean- Paul Sartre (1905-1980) and Maurice Merleau-Ponty (1908-1961)). These existential phenomenologists – and other researchers influenced by the interpretative phenomenological research tradition – are therefore less concerned with essences than Husserl and are more focused on describing and interpreting aspects of people’s “lifeworld”. Indeed we cannot adopt a God’s eye view (as Merleau-Ponty would say [1945], 1962) but must instead be content with interpreting the meaning of things in their appearing from a standpoint that is always grounded in the things themselves. Therefore not only is reality interpreted through our lived experiences, it is also

interpreted through the particular culture, historical time and language in which we find ourselves (Sandberg, 2005).

Husserl's focus on *époché* and the emphasis on descriptive phenomenology does not suit the format of this research. As discussed in section 3.2, within this study I have certain features of an "insider" and there was a need to be aware "of how one's own biases and preconceptions may be influencing what one is trying to understand" (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p. 123), suggesting that it was impossible to successfully practise *époché*. Indeed a strength of the inquiry was because of whom I am and my existing relationship, both personal and professional, with the research topic. Kvale and Brinkman (2009) also recognise that the process of learning through conversations is inter-subjective and social, involving both the interviewer and interviewee as co-constructors of knowledge and therefore one can never entirely put aside one's pre-suppositions.

The principles of hermeneutic phenomenology – the need to explore experiences with the help of methods of interpretation – guides the methodological choices in this study (Willig, 2013). Hans-Georg Gadamer (1900-2002) and Paul Ricoeur (1913-2005) are influential in this area; "for Gadamer conversation remains the medium in which we search for truth" (Dunne, 1993, p. 23) whereas Ricoeur's work is concerned primarily with interpreting text (Langdrige, 2007). For Gadamer it is conversation itself which is vitally important since it reveals things that were previously concealed. Language is, he suggests, the primary way in which understanding emerges and from which all interpretative understanding of existence emerges (Langdrige, 2007). Through conversation there is a mutual and genuine attempt to understand the intention of the other party whilst still recognising our own position within the conversation. As Dunne (1993) states: "When viewpoints are brought together in conversation then, like the rubbing together of fire sticks (to use Plato's image – Republic 435a) they can sometimes produce the illuminative spark that no one of them can quite produce on its own" (p. 21). Within hermeneutic phenomenology meaning is explicated through appropriation; this is the act of capturing the meaning through a "fusion of horizons" (a term used by Gadamer) where we expand knowledge of ourselves through engagement with the other. This requires empathy and, according to Ricoeur, suspicion i.e. we need to employ a method of interpretation which allows us to see beyond surface meaning to hidden meanings below. Ricoeur terms these two distinct approaches to understanding as a demythologizing (or emphatic) element and a demystifying (suspicious) element. It is this

type of appropriation which will be employed within this research inquiry through the use of template analysis.

To conclude, the use of a phenomenological perspective within this research is consistent with the philosophical commitments previously discussed and is appropriate in practice-orientated disciplines such as education and health because of its emphasis on looking at the detail of lived experiences in specific settings (King & Horrocks, 2010). Kandiko and Mawer (2013) in their research into students' expectations and perceptions of HE also acknowledged that whilst much has been written on what students expect from HE, "reality as experienced by the student"(p. 15) is an area which can provide further knowledge and understanding – thus supporting a phenomenological approach. In this study with its focus on individual students' and staff' accounts of their expectations and subsequent experience of the pedagogic relationship a phenomenological stance is most appropriate.

Appendix 3

Student Questionnaire

Expectations

As you have accepted an offer to study at ***, I would like to understand more about your expectations of the course and in particular your expectations of your tutors / university teachers. It is important that I can capture this information before you start with us and therefore I would like you to complete this survey as soon as possible.

All of the information you provide will be treated confidentially and it would be most appreciated if you could answer all of the questions.

All respondents have the chance to be entered into a draw to win a PhilipsGoGear Vibe MP4 player 4GB. Responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and will not be linked to contact details used for the prize draw. The deadline for completion of the survey is Thursday 12th September 2013.

Section 1: About Yourself and Your Previous Education

Q1 Gender

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)

Q2 Name of School / College Attended Post 16

Q3 Type of School

- ☐ Secondary Comprehensive / High (1)
- ☐ Private (2)
- ☐ Sixth Form College (3)
- ☐ Further Education College (4)
- ☐ Other (5) _____

Q4 Academic Qualifications gained Post 16 (Select all that apply)

- ☐ A Levels / AS Levels (1)
- ☐ BTEC (2)
- ☐ International Baccalaureate (3)
- ☐ Other (4) _____

Q5 Please indicate HOW TRUE you believe the following statements are for you.

	Not True (1)	Possibly True (2)	True (3)	Don't know (4)
My school / college has prepared me well for my course at university. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My choice of subjects at Level 3 (i.e. A Levels., etc.) has prepared me well for my course at university. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 2: About your chosen course

Q6 What course are you about to start?

- ☐ BA (Hons) Business Studies (1)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Business Management (2)
- ☐ BA (Hons) International Business Management (3)
- ☐ BA (Hons) International Business Management with Spanish or French (4)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Business with (5)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Accountancy (6)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Finance and Investment Management (7)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Human Resources Management (8)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Marketing Management (9)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Travel and Tourism Management (10)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Business Leadership and Corporate Management (11)
- ☐ BA (Hons) Entrepreneurial Business Management (12)

Section 3: About your expectations of your course at *. This section looks at your expectations of the course itself for the FIRST year of study**

Q7 Please indicate HOW TRUE the following statements are for you. I expect to:

	Not true (1)	Possibly True (2)	True (3)	Don't Know (4)
Be interested in the topics covered on this course (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have some difficulty in understanding some of the material on this course (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Achieve a good pass in all modules at the end of the year (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be taught in large groups (over 20) most of the time (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 4: About your expectations of your tutors / university teachers at *. This section looks at the expectations you may have concerning your tutors / university teachers here at *** and how they can help you to learn.**

Q8 I expect my tutors to:

	All of the time (1)	Most of the time (2)	Sometimes (3)	Never (4)
Be punctual (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be positive (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be fair (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be motivational (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be enthusiastic (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be honest (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be humorous (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be confident (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be challenging (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Know my name (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Read drafts of my work (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be available to answer questions outside of class / lecture time (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have excellent subject knowledge (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be conducting relevant research (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have a doctoral qualification (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have relevant business experience (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be able to explain things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

well (17)				
Be approachable (18)	○	○	○	○
Be caring to individual needs (19)	○	○	○	○
Have good communication skills (20)	○	○	○	○

Q9 Please indicate HOW IMPORTANT the following statements are to you. It is important that my tutors:

	Very Important (1)	Important (2)	Not that important (3)	Not at all Important (4)
Are punctual (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are positive (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are fair (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are motivational (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are enthusiastic (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are honest (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are humorous (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are confident (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are challenging (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Know my name (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Read drafts of my work (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are available to answer questions outside of class / lecture time (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have excellent subject knowledge (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be conducting relevant research (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have a doctoral qualification (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have relevant business experience (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are able to explain things well (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are approachable (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are caring to individual needs (19)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have good communication skills (20)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q10 The following statements were considered to be very important to you regarding your tutors. From these which is the most important factor.

Q11 Why is this the most important factor?

Section 5: About your expectations of your self as a student at *. This section looks at those expectations you may hold about what you need to do in order to learn effectively at university.**

Q12 Please indicate HOW TRUE the following statements are for you. I expect to:

	Not true (1)	Possibly True (2)	True (3)	Don't know (4)
Have to study more independently (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have to work harder than I did at school / college outside of taught sessions (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attend lectures and seminars whenever possible (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to me electronically in advance of seminars / lectures (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to me in hard copy in advance of seminars / lectures (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate fully in lectures / seminars (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have to make my own notes (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be honest (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take responsibility for my learning alongside my tutor. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13 Please indicate HOW IMPORTANT the following statements are for you. It is important that I:

	Very Important (1)	Important (2)	Not that important (3)	Not important (4)
Study more independently (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Work harder than I did at school / college outside of taught sessions (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attend lectures and seminars whenever possible (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to me electronically in advance of seminars / lectures (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to me in hard copy in advance of seminars / lectures (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate fully in lectures / seminars (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make my own notes (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Am honest (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take responsibility for my learning alongside my tutor. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q14 The following statements were considered to be very important to you regarding your self. From these which is the most important factor.

Q15 Why is this important to you?

Section 6. About how your expectations have been informed. This section tries to establish how your expectations have been formed.

Q16 Which of the following have perhaps influenced / informed your expectations of how your tutors / university teachers and you will act at university. (Tick all that apply)

- ☐ Friends (1)
- ☐ Brothers / Sisters (2)
- ☐ School / Teachers (3)
- ☐ Parents (4)
- ☐ Open Day at Northumbria (Please specify who in particular informed your expectations) (5) _____
- ☐ Other (Please specify) (6) _____

Section 7 Looking Ahead. This section looks at your current expectations for the future.

Q17 Which classification of degree do you HOPE to achieve?

- ☐ 1st (1)
- ☐ 2:1 (2)
- ☐ 2:2 (3)
- ☐ 3rd (4)
- ☐ Not Sure (5)

Q18 Which classification of degree do you EXPECT to achieve?

- ☐ 1st (1)
- ☐ 2:1 (2)
- ☐ 2:2 (3)
- ☐ 3rd (4)
- ☐ Not Sure (5)

Q19 When you complete your degree HOW LIKELY are the following statements for you. I expect to:

	Not likely (1)	Fairly likely (2)	Very Likely (3)	Don't know (4)
Be in graduate employment (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be actively seeking employment in the private sector (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be actively seeking employment in the public sector (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be actively seeking employment in the charitable sector (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Set up my own business (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Continue studying in Higher Education (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be travelling (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20 As part of my research I may need to contact you during your time at university. Would you be happy to take part in any follow up research that may be conducted? (For example take part in a focus group, an interview or complete a research diary)

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

Q21 Would you like to be entered into the free draw to win a PhilipsGoGear Vibe MP4 player 4GB

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

Q22 Please enter the following information so that you can be contacted at a later stage of the research.

First Name (1)

Surname (2)

Email Address (3)

Contact Number (4)

You have completed the questionnaire. Many thanks for your help and have a safe journey to *** in September.

Appendix 4

Staff Questionnaire / Survey

Expectations Tutors

I am undertaking research on first year undergraduate student expectations of their tutors / university teachers for my DBA. Many students have completed a questionnaire and I would now like to establish what you believe to be the expectations of students.

It is important that I can capture this information now before term gets into full swing and therefore I would like you to complete this survey as soon as possible. All of the information you provide will be treated confidentially and it would be most appreciated if you could answer all of the questions.

Please note that because I am trying to ascertain students' expectations as well as what they consider to be important there are subtle differences in the purpose of some of the questions. It is therefore imperative that the stems of the question are read carefully so as to avoid any confusion or duplication of answers.

Thanks.

Section 1

Q1 Gender

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)

Section 2: About student expectations of their course . This section looks at what you believe first year students expect of their course.

Q2 Please indicate HOW TRUE you believe the following statements are for students. I believe that a typical first year student would expect to:

	Not True (1)	Possibly True (2)	True (3)	Don't know (4)
Be interested in the topics covered on this course (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have some difficulty in understanding some of the material on this course (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Achieve a good pass in all modules at the end of the year (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be taught in large groups (over 20) most of the time (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 3: About student expectations of their tutors / university teachers. This section looks at what you believe students expect from their tutors / university teachers and how they can help them to learn.

Q3 I believe that the typical first year student will EXPECT tutors to:

	All of the time (1)	Most of the time (2)	Sometimes (3)	Never (4)
Be punctual (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be positive (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be fair (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be motivational (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be enthusiastic (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be honest (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be humorous (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be confident (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be challenging (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Know their name (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Read drafts of their work (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be available to answer questions outside of class / lecture time (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have excellent subject knowledge (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be conducting relevant research (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have a doctoral qualification (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have relevant business experience (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be able to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

explain things well (17)				
Be approachable (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be caring to individual needs (19)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have good communication skills (20)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q4 HOW IMPORTANT do you think the following statements are to students I believe that the typical first year student would think that it was IMPORTANT that tutors:

	Very Important (1)	Important (2)	Not that important (3)	Not at all Important (4)
Are punctual (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are positive (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are fair (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are motivational (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are enthusiastic (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are honest (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are humorous (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are confident (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are challenging (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Know their name (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Read drafts of their work (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are available to answer questions outside of class / lecture time (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have excellent subject knowledge (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Be conducting relevant research (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have a doctoral qualification (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have relevant business experience (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are able to explain things well (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are approachable (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are caring to individual needs (19)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have good communication skills (20)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5 You considered the following statements to be very important to students with regard to their expectations of tutors / university teachers. From these which do you think they would see as the most important factor.

Q6 Why do you consider this would be the most important factor to students?

Section 4: About students' expectations of themselves as a student. This section looks at what you believe to be the expectations that students may hold about what they need to do to learn effectively at university.

Q7 How TRUE do students expect the following statements to be. I believe that the typical first year student would EXPECT to:

	Not true (1)	Possibly True (2)	True (3)	Don't know (4)
Have to study more independently (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have to work harder than they did at school / college outside of taught sessions (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attend lectures and seminars whenever possible (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to them electronically in advance of seminars / lectures (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to them in hard copy in advance of seminars / lectures (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate fully in lectures / seminars (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have to make their own notes (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be honest (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take responsibility for their learning alongside their tutor. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q8 How IMPORTANT do you think the following statements are for students. I believe that the typical first year student would think that it was IMPORTANT to:

	Very Important (1)	Important (2)	Not that important (3)	Not important (4)
Study more independently (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Work harder than they did at school / college outside of taught sessions (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attend lectures and seminars whenever possible (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to them electronically in advance of seminars / lectures (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have materials made available to them in hard copy in advance of seminars / lectures (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate fully in lectures / seminars (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make their own notes (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be honest (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take responsibility for their learning alongside their tutor. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q9 You considered the following statements to be very important to students with regard to their expectations of their role within university. From these which do you believe they would see as the most important role.

Q10 Why do you consider this would be the MOST important factor to students.

Section 5 Looking Ahead . This section looks at students' current expectations for the future.

Q11 Which classification of degree do you believe the typical first year student HOPES to achieve?

- ☐ 1st (1)
- ☐ 2:1 (2)
- ☐ 2:2 (3)
- ☐ 3rd (4)
- ☐ Not Sure (5)

Q12 Which classification of degree do you believe the typical first year student EXPECTS to achieve?

- ☐ 1st (1)
- ☐ 2:1 (2)
- ☐ 2:2 (3)
- ☐ 3rd (4)
- ☐ Not Sure (5)

Q13 When students have completed their degree HOW LIKELY are the following statements for them. I believe that the typical first year student would expect to:

	Not likely (1)	Fairly likely (2)	Very Likely (3)	Don't know (4)
Be in graduate employment (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be actively seeking employment in the private sector (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be actively seeking employment in the public sector (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be actively seeking employment in the charitable sector (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Set up their own business (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Continue studying in Higher Education (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be traveling (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You have completed the questionnaire. Many thanks for your support.

Appendix 5

Student Participant Interview Schedule – Phase 1 and 2 Interviews (November 2013 and March 2014)

Introduce Research Purpose

Sign Participant Form – Give Copy

Criteria Check – Type of Level 3 qualifications and Type of School

Set Dictaphone On

A semi structured approach, the primary purpose of which is to explore the nature of the expected relationship between the academic and student by getting participants to describe what their expectations are of this relationship (and the roles each actor has to play) and how these expectations were formed. A secondary focus is to ascertain how important a fulfilment of these expectations is to the participant and the potential consequences of non – fulfilment.

1. What do you expect from your university teachers?

Probe: Are any of these more important than the others to you – why is this?

2. Why do you have these expectations (where have they come from?)

Probe: Where have they come from?

3. Do your expectations of university teachers differ from the expectations you had of your school teachers?

Probe: How? Can you give an example? Why do you think this is?

4. What do you think university teachers expect from first year business students?

Probe: Are any of these more important than the others – why is this?

5. Why do you think they have these expectations?

6. How would you describe the ideal pedagogical / working relationship between your university teachers and yourself?

7. Give an example (if you can) of a situation which has occurred whilst you've been at university which is a good example of a university teacher meeting your expectations.

8. What feelings did this provoke in you?

Probe: How did this make you feel?

9. Give an example (if you can) of a situation which has occurred whilst you've been at university which is a good example of a university teacher not meeting your expectations.

10. What feelings did this provoke in you?

Probe: How did this make you feel?

Additional Question added after the pilot study.

11. Do you have different expectations of lecturers than seminar tutors?
Probe: Why? How?

Student Participant Interview Schedule – Phase 3 Interview (June 2014)

Introduce Research Purpose

Set Dictaphone On

A semi- structured, flexible approach, the primary purpose of which is to explore and confirm whether the expectations which had been previously identified by each student of their university teachers and of themselves have been experienced and whether these expectations still hold for their future pedagogical relationships. To further explore the degree to which their own expectations of what the tutor is obliged to provide for them, and what they in return are obliged to provide to their tutors, impacts on their overall student satisfaction experience.

- 1. You stated in our first two conversations that these (show them a list from transcriptions) were what you expected from your university teachers within the pedagogic relationship and that they were important to you.**

Do you still have these expectations? (Is this still the case?)

Do you still think they are important?

Are there any you would like to add / remove?

Probe: Why have they changed? Why not? (Examples?)

Why have they remained the same? Why not? (Examples)

- 2. Has your understanding of what a university teacher does i.e. their role changed over the past year?**

Probe: What do you think their role is?

- 3. You also stated that these qualities / characteristics were what you thought that university teachers expected from their students in the first year.**

Do you still think this or do you think they have different expectations of what your role should be within the pedagogical relationship?

Are there any you would like to add / remove?

Probe: Why

Why not

- 4. Has your understanding of what a students' role is whilst at university changed over the past year?**

Probe: What is your role whilst at university?

- 5. In general how well would you say that you have lived up to the expectations of what your university teachers expect you to do.**
- 6. In general how well would you say that your university teachers have lived up to your expectations this year?**
- 7. In those instances where your expectations have been met how have you responded? (Focus on actions)**

Probe: Why do you think this is?
And also how did it make you feel?
- 8. In those instances where your expectations have not been met how have you responded? (Focus On Actions)**

Probe: Why do you think this is?
And also how did it make you feel?
- 9. Who in your opinion has the greater responsibility in fulfilling their obligations to the other party – the lecturer or the student?**
Probe: Why?
- 10. Any other comments you would like to make?**

Appendix 6

Academic Staff Interview Schedules

Academic Interview Schedule (October 2014)

Introduce Research Purpose

Sign Participant Form – Give Copy

Set Dictaphone On

Define my understanding of the pedagogic relationship for this research purposes.

A basic premise for a definition of pedagogy is “any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another” (Mortimore, 1999, p. 3); thus a pedagogic relationship is that which exists between teachers, lecturers and their students with the purpose of facilitating learning and consists of activities undertaken by parties to contribute to this. Role requirements are the actions and responsibilities of the stakeholders to ensure a satisfactory outcome within the pedagogic relationship.

A semi structured approach, the primary purpose of which is to explore the nature of the expected relationship between the academic and student by getting participants to describe what their expectations are of this relationship (and the roles each actor has to play) and how these expectations were formed. A secondary focus is to ascertain how important a fulfilment of these expectations is to the participant and the potential consequences of non – fulfilment.

1. Could you describe to me the ideal pedagogical / working relationship between a student and yourself?

Probe:

Can you give me a specific example of when this has happened?

How did you respond?

2. What are your pedagogic expectations of UG students?

3. How have these been informed?

4. How well do first year students live up to these expectations?

Probe: Can you give me an example of when a student has lived up / has not lived up to your expectations?

How did this make you feel?

5. Are these expectations shared by first year students?

Probe Why
Why not?

6. Do you think that your expectations of first year students have changed over recent years?

Probe Why
Why not
Specific example

7. Do you think that student expectations of their lecturers have changed over recent years?

Probe Why
Why not
Specific example
Where do you think they get these expectations from?

8. Do you tell first year students what your expectations are?

Probe: When
Effective?

9. Do you ask students what they expect from you?

Probe: Why? / Why Not?
Effective?

10. Who in your opinion has the greater responsibility in fulfilling their obligations to the other party – the lecturer or the student?

Probe: Why?

11. How important do you think it is for a good pedagogical relationship to exist between teaching staff and students?

Probe: Why
What could be the consequences of a poor relationship?
What could be the consequences of a good relationship?

12. Any other comments you would like to make regarding student and lecturer expectations of the pedagogic relationship.

Appendix 7

RESEARCH ORGANISATION INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH **ORGANISATION** INFORMED CONSENT FORM

**** Business School

University of ****

Completion of this form is required whenever research is being undertaken by *** staff or students within any organisation. This applies to research that is carried out on the premises, or is about an organisation, or members of that organisation or its customers, as specifically targeted as subjects of research.

The researcher must supply an explanation to inform the organisation of the purpose of the study, who is carrying out the study, and who will eventually have access to the results. In particular issues of anonymity and avenues of dissemination and publications of the findings should be brought to the organisations' attention.

Researcher's Name: Pam Croney

Researcher's Statement:

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to explore first year undergraduate students' expectations of role requirements and pedagogic relationships in Business and Management Education within HE alongside lecturers' expectations of first year students in the context of this relationship. Subsequently the study will explore how any differences in these expectations may impact on student academic adjustment, success and satisfaction.

Parties Involved?

- Lecturers within ***
- First Year UG students within ***
- The researcher will contact by phone 30 UG students explaining the nature of the research and their expected role. These students will have been selected using a purposive sample i.e. participants will be chosen which will best enable the researcher to answer the research question. The student sample will be chosen from a number of local schools / colleges who consistently enrol significant numbers of students from their institutions onto UG Business programmes and meet other set criteria such as school type and subject choice; thus providing an illustrative profile which is representative of our cohort (although not statistically representative). Consent will be asked over the phone to send a questionnaire which is to be completed and returned to the researcher. The researcher at a later stage will send an email to these students asking them to be interviewed further and to complete a research diary.
- The researcher will send an email to lecturers explaining the nature of the research and their anticipated involvement. Lecturers will then submit their expression of interest to the researcher by email. A self-selection sample of lecturers will be used who will have been invited to participate based on researcher set criteria e.g. teach first year students.
- The research will be conducted by Pam Croney, a first year doctoral student at **** Business School, **** University. Pam's background is in education and she has worked as a secondary school teacher for 23 years, therefore she has some experience in this field and will be engaging with participants during the data collection process.
- Organisation and individual participation is entirely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time.

Research Methods

A number of research methods may be employed, including questionnaires, interviews, focus groups and research diaries. All research participants will receive an individual Informed Consent form which they must sign and return to the researcher before the interview can take place. This may be done by returning the signed hard copy in the post or by sending an email confirming their consent from their own personal email account. All interviews will be recorded with a digital voice recorder and transcribed. Transcripts will be returned to participants to check for accuracy before use.

All participants will be provided with their own research diary to complete.

Location of Research

Interviews and Focus groups will take place on *** premises.

Timescale

The data collection timescale is from September 2013 – July 2014.

Time Commitment

Lecturers

- An initial meeting or telephone call of approximately 15 minutes to discuss the research process in more detail which will also allow lecturers to decide whether they would like to participate in the research.
- An interview / focus group with the lecturers for approximately 1.5 – 2 hours.
- Transcripts will then be emailed back to lecturers to be reviewed (either with amendments, deletions or additions) approximately 1 hour.
- Any other meetings deemed necessary for the research upon negotiation with the lecturer.

UG Students

- An initial telephone call of approximately 15 minutes to discuss the research process in more detail which will also allow students to decide whether they would like to participate in the research.
- Completion of a Questionnaire (30 minutes)
- An interview / focus group with the researcher for approximately 1.5 – 2 hours.
- Transcripts will then be emailed back to students to be reviewed (either with amendments, deletions or additions) approximately 1 hour.
- Any other meetings deemed necessary for the research upon negotiation with the student.

Anonymity

All information in this study will be anonymised, with all names of organisations and people changed using a coding system.

Confidentiality

All data will be stored securely either electronically on computer or in hard copy version in a locked cupboard. Participants' names and codes will be stored manually and separately from the anonymised electronic record. As part of the data analysis process, hard copies of the anonymised transcripts (raw data) may be given to the doctoral supervision team and a small number of other research participants to review to ensure that the researcher's analysis has resonance. Hard copies will be returned to the researcher and will not remain in the possession of the research participants.

Research Dissemination

Data obtained through this research will be reproduced and published in a variety of forms and for a variety of audiences related to the broad nature of the research detailed above (i.e. conferences, peer reviewed journals, articles etc.) The data will be stored in the first instance for ten years unless further permission is sought and agreed and then destroyed.

Queries

Please direct any queries regarding this research to Pam Croney (pam.cronney@northumbria.ac.uk)

Any organisation manager or representative who is empowered to give consent may do so here:

Name: _____

Position/Title: _____

Organisation Name: _____

Location: _____

Anonymity must be offered to the organisation if it does not wish to be identified in the research report. Confidentiality is more complex and cannot extend to the markers of student work or the reviewers of staff work, but can apply to the published outcomes. If confidentiality is required, what form applies?

☐ No confidentiality required

☐ Masking of organisation name in research report

☐ No publication of the research results without specific organisational consent

☐ Other by agreement as specified by addendum

Signature: _____ Date: _____

This form can be signed via email if the accompanying email is attached with the signer's personal email address included. The form cannot be completed by phone, rather should be handled via post.

Appendix 8

Informed Consent Form for research participants (Student)

**** **Business School**

Informed Consent Form for research participants (Student)

Title of Study	Expectations of Role Requirements and Pedagogic Relationships in Business and Management Education within HE
Person(s) conducting the research	Pam Croney
Programme of study	DBA
Address of the researcher for correspondence	*****
Telephone	0191 243 7419
E-mail	pam.croney@*****
Description of the broad nature of the research	<p>The purpose of the study is to explore first year undergraduate students' expectations of role requirements and pedagogic relationships in Business and Management Education within HE alongside lecturers' expectations towards first year students in the context of this relationship.</p> <p>Subsequently the study will explore how any differences in these expectations may impact on student academic adjustment,</p>

	success and satisfaction
Description of the involvement expected of participants including the broad nature of questions to be answered or events to be observed or activities to be undertaken, and the expected time commitment	<p>The expected involvement of the research participants is as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completion of a Survey (approx.. 1 hour) • Semi – structured interviews (*3) – duration approx.. 30 minutes • Any other meetings deemed necessary for the research upon negotiation with the research participant. <p>The interviews will be semi structured and based upon students' expectations of the pedagogic relationship</p> <p>The interview questions will be exploratory in nature and focus on previous results from the initial questionnaire completed by students.</p> <p>Any follow up interview questions will be informed by the issues arising from data collected in the interview, research diaries and from other participants.</p> <p>All interviews will be recorded with a digital voice recorder and transcribed.</p> <p>Anonymity will be assured by changing the names of the participants, the organizations and people that they name during the interview in the transcripts. Manual coding of all actual names will take place and these will be stored separately from transcripts in a secure place.</p> <p>Interview transcripts will be emailed back to participants for reviewing and</p>

	<p>agreement. Participants are free to make any amendments, deletions or additions to the transcripts.</p> <p>Confidentiality will be maintained in terms of storing data securely on computer and ensuring hard copies of transcripts and field notes are stored in a locked cupboard.</p> <p>All data will be stored securely either electronically on computer or in hard copy version in a locked cupboard. As part of the data analysis process, hard copies of the anonymised transcripts (raw data) will only be given to the doctoral supervision team and a small number of other research participants to review to ensure that the researcher's analysis has resonance. Hard copies will be returned to the researcher and will not remain in the possession of the research participants. The data will be stored in the first instance for ten years unless further permission is sought and agreed and then destroyed</p> <p>Data will be used and reproduced as case studies in a variety of research publications.</p>
--	--

Information obtained in this study, including this consent form, will be kept strictly confidential (i.e. will not be passed to others) and anonymous (i.e. individuals and organisations will not be identified *unless this is expressly excluded in the details given above*).

Data obtained through this research may be reproduced and published in a variety of forms and for a variety of audiences related to the broad nature of the research detailed above. It will not be used for purposes other than those outlined above without your permission.

Participation is entirely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time.

By signing this consent form, you are indicating that you fully understand the above information and agree to participate in this study on the basis of the above information.

Participant's signature

Date

Student's signature

Date

Please keep one copy of this form for your own records

Appendix 9

Informed Consent Form for research participants (Academics)

**** Business School

Informed Consent Form for research participants (Lecturers)

Title of Study	Expectations of Role Requirements and Pedagogic Relationships in Business and Management Education within HE
Person(s) conducting the research	Pam Croney
Programme of study	DBA
Address of the researcher for correspondence	****
Telephone	0191 243 7419
E-mail	pam.cronney@****
Description of the broad nature of the research	<p>The purpose of the study is to explore first year undergraduate students' expectations of role requirements and pedagogic relationships in Business and Management Education within HE alongside lecturers' expectations towards first year students in the context of this relationship.</p> <p>Subsequently the study will explore how any differences in these expectations may impact on student academic adjustment,</p>

	success and satisfaction
Description of the involvement expected of participants including the broad nature of questions to be answered or events to be observed or activities to be undertaken, and the expected time commitment	<p>The expected involvement of the research participants is as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview (approximately 1 hours) • Any other meetings deemed necessary for the research upon negotiation with the research participant. <p>The interviews will be semi structured and explore lecturers' expectations of students within the pedagogic relationship.</p> <p>Any follow up interview questions will be informed by the issues arising from data collected in the initial interviews and from other participants within the research.</p> <p>All interviews will be recorded with a digital voice recorder and transcribed.</p> <p>Anonymity will be assured by changing the names of the participants and any people that they name during the interview in the transcripts. Actual names will only be recorded manually against a code that will then be used for any electronically held data.</p> <p>Interview transcripts will be emailed back to participants for reviewing and agreement. Participants are free to make any amendments, deletions or additions to the transcripts.</p> <p>Confidentiality will be maintained in terms of storing data securely on computer and</p>

	<p>ensuring hard copies of transcripts and field notes are stored in a locked cupboard.</p> <p>All data will be stored securely either electronically on computer or in hard copy version in a locked cupboard. As part of the data analysis process, hard copies of the anonymised transcripts (raw data) will only be given to the doctoral supervision team and a small number of other research participants to review to ensure that the researcher's analysis has resonance. Hard copies will be returned to the researcher and will not remain in the possession of the research participants. The data will be stored in the first instance for ten years unless further permission is sought and agreed and then destroyed</p> <p>Data will be used and reproduced as case studies in a variety of research publications.</p>
--	--

Information obtained in this study, including this consent form, will be kept strictly confidential (i.e. will not be passed to others) and anonymous (i.e. individuals and organisations will not be identified *unless this is expressly excluded in the details given above*).

Data obtained through this research may be reproduced and published in a variety of forms and for a variety of audiences related to the broad nature of the research detailed above. It will not be used for purposes other than those outlined above without your permission.

Participation is entirely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time.

By signing this consent form, you are indicating that you fully understand the above information and agree to participate in this study on the basis of the above information.

Participant's signature

Date

Student's signature

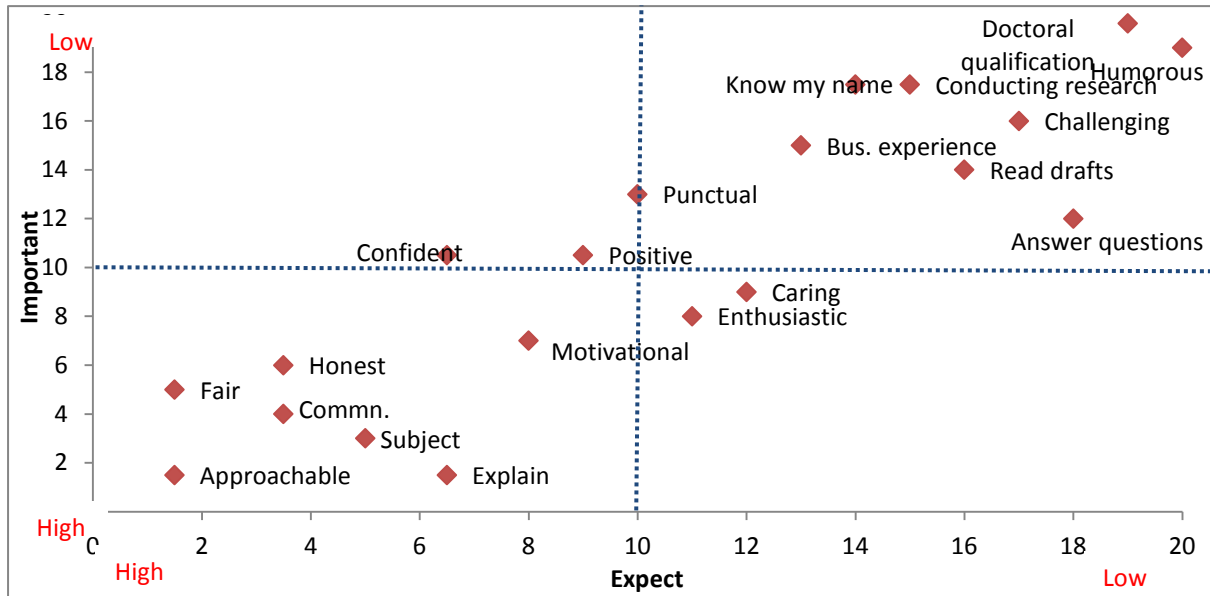
Date

Please keep one copy of this form for your own records

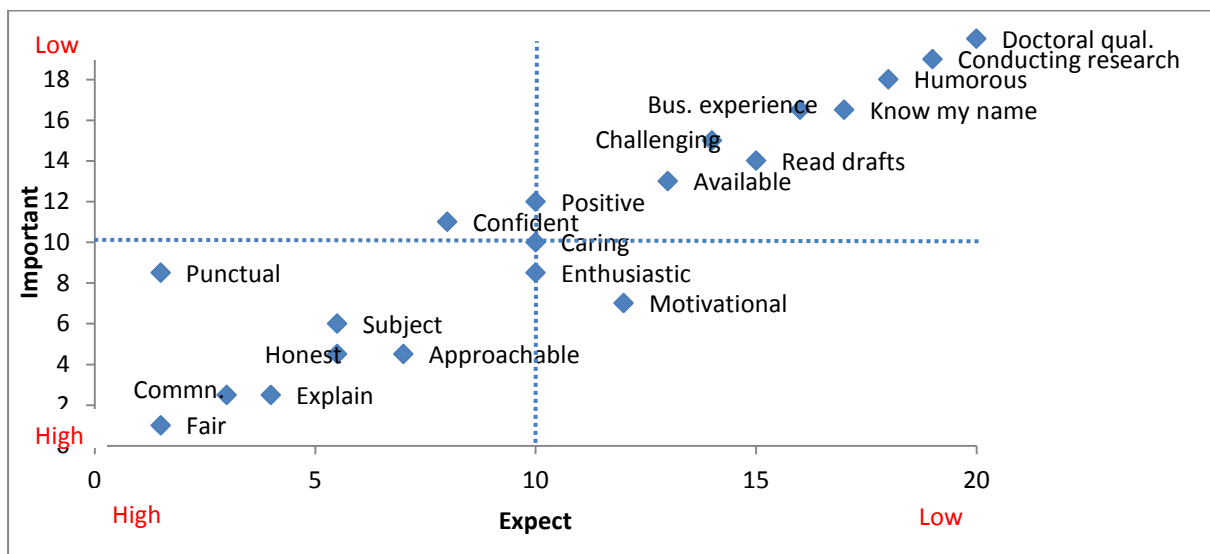
Appendix 10

Scatter Diagram of Academics' Role

Expectations/Importance – Students of University Teachers (Academics)



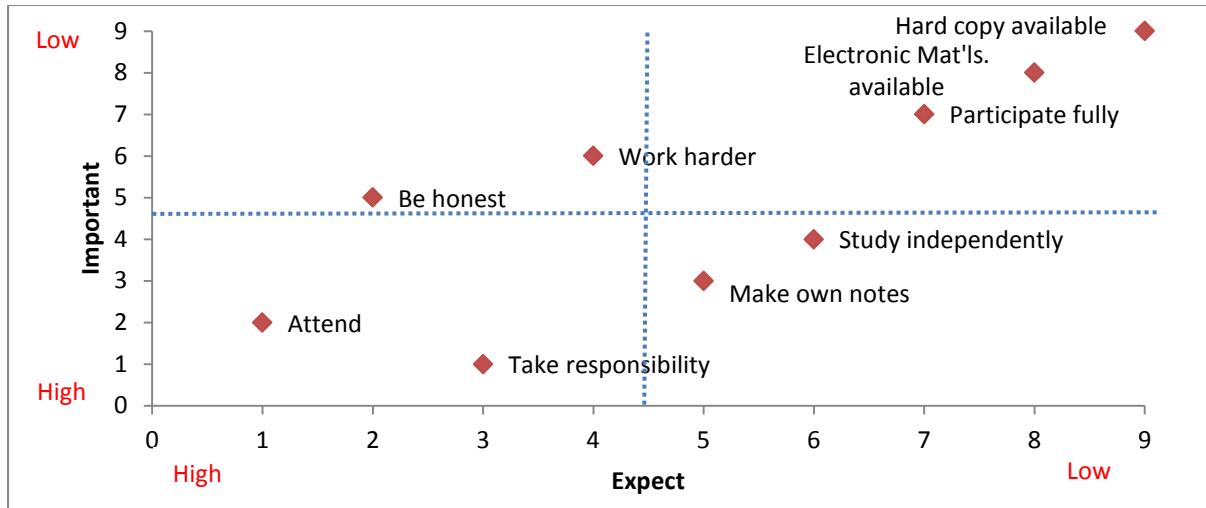
Expectations/Importance – University teachers' perception of students' expectations of teachers



Appendix 11

Scatter Diagram of Students' Role

Expectations/Importance – Students of Students' Role



Expectations/Importance – University teachers' perception of students' expectations of student.

